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MODERN HISTORY:

FROM THE

COMING OF CHRIST

AND THE

Change of the Roman Republic into an Empire,

TO THE

YEAR OF OUR LORD 1842.

By PETER FREDET, D.D.
PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN ST. MARY'S COLLEGE, BALTIMORE

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ERRATA.

Page 132, third line from the bottom, for *Warna* read *Varna.*
" 213, first line of the title, for *AGAIST* read *AGAINST.*
" 318, fourth line, for *Frederic IV* read *Frederic William III.*
" " " " for *Nicholas I* read *Nicholas.*
" 320, twelfth line, for *invicible* read *invincible.*
" 347, year 1125, for *Lathaire* read *Lothaire.*

MODERN HISTORY.

PART V.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES (A. D. 1095), TO THEIR END (A. D. 1272).

ORIGIN AND CAUSES OF THE CRUSADES.

We have now reached the eventful period in which a violent struggle took place between two great divisions of the globe, for the possession of Jerusalem and Palestine; when Europe, shaken, as it were, to its foundation, seemed repeatedly to precipitate itself against Asia. The better to fix our attention on so grand and interesting a subject, we will be more than ever careful to say little about contemporary transactions of merely secondary importance.

By *Crusades* are meant those military expeditions which were set on foot under the banner of the cross, for the purpose of delivering the Holy Land from the oppressive yoke of the Mahometans. Numerous and forcible were the motives which urged the nations of Europe to engage in these expeditions. New hordes of Barbarians were threatening to invade all Christendom, and required a powerful barrier to check their destructive course. The Seljukian Turks had conquered, within a few years, the fairest portions of Western Asia; the extent of the Greek empire was more and more reduced by their usurpations; and the emperor Alexius Comnenus, harassed and distressed on every side, eagerly solicited the assistance of the Latins against the common enemy of Christianity.

On the other hand, public indignation was roused throughout Europe by the daily recital of the enormities which the Arabs and Turks committed in the Holy Land, and of the cruel treatment which they inflicted on the Christians, whether inhabitants of the country, or travellers and pilgrims who went to Jerusalem. At this period, a lively faith and fervent piety induced multitudes of Christians from all countries to visit the places consecrated by the sufferings of our Redeemer. When, after a thousand dangers and hardships, they arrived in Palestine, the gates of Jerusalem were opened only to those who could pay a piece of gold; and, as most of them were poor, or had been plundered on the way, they were obliged to linger in wretchedness around the city for which they had left their native land and every domestic comfort. Many died with hunger, or fell by the sword of the barbarians. In the city itself, they who had been allowed to enter it, were exposed, like its christian inhabitants, to all sorts of torments and outrages, some being loaded with chains, some forced to draw a car or a plough, and others condemned to an ignominious death. Such as could escape and return to Europe, did not fail to relate what they had seen and suffered; and these reports, being widely circulated, excited universal commiseration among the faithful, and prepared their minds for some extraordinary exertion.

FIRST CRUSADE, (A.D. 1095–1099).

Such were the feelings of Christian Europe when a French Priest, called *Peter*, and surnamed the *Hermit* on account of his retired life, undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Seeing the cruel oppression which weighed down his brethren in Asia, his sensible heart was deeply afflicted; and, after a moving interview with Simeon, the pious patriarch of Jerusalem, he prevailed upon him to write to the Pope and to the princes of Europe, for the purpose of imploring their assistance, offering himself to be his deputy and the bearer of his letters. This measure being readily adopted, Peter set out from Palestine, crossed the seas, and, landing on the Italian coast, hastened to the Pope, Urban II. The Pontiff received him with kindness, listened to him with emotion, praised his devotedness and zeal; and, as he himself was convinced of the necessity of opposing the alarming progress of the infidels, and of rescuing the eastern Christians from oppression, he commissioned Peter to go forward and preach every where in favor of the speedy deliverance of Jerusalem.

The generous hermit was eminently qualified for this noble office. Under a poor garb and mean appearance, he possessed an elevated mind, great energy of soul, and heroic sentiments; his pathetic and glowing eloquence readily found its way to the hearts of his hearers. He travelled through Italy, France, and other countries, communicating to others, by his preaching and exhortations, the zeal with which he himself was animated. The Pope soon followed him, and, after a first council held at Placentia in Italy, appointed, for the final decision, another to be celebrated at Clermont in France, towards the close of the year 1095.

The assembly met at the time and place which had been assigned, and, from the great number of bishops, princes, dukes, and other distinguished persons who composed it, together with an immense crowd of spectators, might be considered a general convention of Christendom. Peter the hermit having first spoken with his usual ardor in favor of the holy war, Pope Urban also delivered an eloquent and animated discourse, at the end of which the whole assembly spontaneously exclaimed: *God wills it; God wills it.* Most of those who were present, hastened to be enrolled for the sacred expedition. They wore, as a mark of their engagement, a *Cross* made of red stuff, and commonly fastened on the right shoulder; whence originated the name of *Crusaders* and *Crusade.*

The same enthusiasm spread rapidly through other provinces and states in Christendom. Those who, in the council of Clermont, had listened to the animating voice of the Pontiff, on their return to their homes diffused a similar fervor among their countrymen. Thousands and thousands flocked to the banner of the cross from every part of Europe, particularly from France and Italy, where all ranks manifested the greatest eagerness to share in the crusade, and, forgetting their private quarrels, began to prepare for their departure into the East.

Among the princes who engaged in the holy war at the head of their vassals and subjects, the most illustrious were: Raymond, Count of Toulouse; Robert, Duke of Normandy, and brother of the King of England; Hugh-the-Great, Count of Vermandois, and brother of the French King; Stephen, Count of Blois; Robert, Earl of Flanders; Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, with his two brothers Eustace and Baldwin; in fine, Bohemond, Prince of Tarentum, with his heroic nephew, Tancred, the very personification of ancient chivalry. Warriors like these might have conquered the world, had there been stricter discipline and order among their troops, and better understanding among themselves; but this could hardly be expected from so many different nations, and from so many princes independent of each other, and all worthy of the chief command.

One of them, however, Godfrey of Bouillon, without being invested with the title of commander-in-chief, generally held the first rank in the army; this privilege being the natural consequence of his reputation for unblemished virtue and extraordinary valor. Although he was not, by birth, either the most conspicuous or the most powerful of the lords who headed the crusade, he brought into the field no fewer than ninety thousand chosen troops, whom the reputation of his uncommon merit had gathered to his standard. The whole number of the crusaders may have amounted, in the beginning, to seven or eight hundred thousand, having among them, as legate of the Pope, the celebrated bishop of Puy, Adhemar de Monteil, a prelate equally renowned for his consummate prudence and tender piety. At the close of winter, they set out from various points, and advanced towards the East in different directions. The first bodies that marched forward, being destitute of discipline, met, with few exceptions, a disastrous fate. Some of them, as soon as they entered Asia, fell by the sword of the Turks; others could not even reach the capital of the Greek empire, but were slain, in their march through Hungary and Bulgaria, by the inhabitants, whose attacks they had provoked by their own excesses (A.D. 1096).

The principal leaders of the expedition acted with more prudence, and arrived in safety at Constantinople, which had been selected for their general rendezvous. Here they met with an unforeseen obstacle. The Greek emperor, who had expected only some bodies of troops to assist him in repelling the Turks, could not see such a multitude of warriors covering his empire, and so formidable a force encamped under the very walls of his capital, without apprehending an attack against himself. In his perplexity, he resolved to adopt towards the crusaders a course of dissimulation and craftiness, which it is not easy to reconcile with the usual courage, generosity, and other noble qualities of Alexius. He loaded the chief crusaders with presents, used every means in his power to attach them to his interest, and making them fair promises of powerful aid, promises which he afterwards took little care to fulfil, gave directions that vessels should be prepared, with the utmost despatch, to convey them across the Bosphorus to the Asiatic coast.

The Christian army, consisting of about six hundred thousand men, about one sixth cavalry, directed their march to Nice, the chief city of Bithynia. This town, famous for the reception it formerly gave to the Fathers of two general councils, was now in the power of the Turkish

Sultan Kilidgi Arslan, or Soliman the younger; a prince highly commendable for the inexhaustible resources of his genius and the unshaken firmness of his character. At the head of a numerous body of cavalry, he moved forward to protect his capital. Furious and repeated attacks were made against the christian camp; but, after prodigious efforts, the crusaders remained masters of the field, and bore off the spoils. Soliman himself could not forbear admiring the lion-like courage of the Christian leaders, who, with a thousand lances, would often break and put to flight twenty times that number of Turkish troops. Thus repulsed with great loss, he retired to a distance in order to collect new forces, and attack the Christians at their departure with greater advantage.

The siege was now carried on with unabated vigor, the besiegers and the besieged making use of all the resources that military science had hitherto devised for the attack and defence of fortified places. Besides a double wall and a numerous garrison, the city was protected on one side by large ditches, and on the other, by the lake Ascanius; but the Christian warriors were not to be stopped or dispirited by such obstacles. They at length succeeded in preventing all access to the town, even by the lake; and Count Raymond undermined one of the principal towers. Nice, reduced to the last extremity, was on the point of being stormed, when the flags of the Greek emperor suddenly appeared on the walls, Alexius, by private embassies, having prevailed upon the inhabitants to surrender to him rather than to the Franks. This artful conduct highly displeased the crusaders; still, not to break their treaty with the Greeks, nor be diverted from the main object of their enterprise, they consented to leave the town in the hands of Alexius, having previously promised him to conquer in his name, and to restore the cities which had formerly belonged to the empire of Constantinople, on condition that he should aid them in the conquest of the Holy Land.

As, however, the Greek monarch manifested little inclination to fulfil his own promises, the Latin lords thought themselves no longer bound by the treaty. Shortly after the reduction of Nice, they began to occupy the cities of Asia-Minor and Syria, to leave garrisons in them, and appoint governors in their own name. Tarsus and the rest of Cilicia were already in their possession, when Baldwin, the brother of Godfrey led off a detached body of crusaders towards the north, and traversed a long tract of country entirely inhabited by Christians, till he came to the Euphrates. The citizens of Edessa, in Mesopotamia, as soon as they heard of his arrival, invited him to take them under his protection. He cheerfully acceded to their request, took possession of the sovereign power among them, and established a principality, which stood until the year 1144, when it was subdued by the famous chieftains Zenghi and Nouradin.

A little before the departure of Baldwin, the crusaders were exposed to a greater danger than they had yet encountered. As they were marching in two great divisions, the less numerous body, commanded by Robert of Normandy, Bohemond and Tancred, was suddenly attacked, near Dorylæum in Phrygia, by a countless multitude of Turks, Persians and Arabs, who covered all the hills and plains as far as the sight could extend.* Bohemond instantly sent messengers to Godfrey of Bouillon and to the other princes, whom he knew to be near, to inform them of the danger with which he was threatened. In the interim, he drew up his forces as well as the spot permitted, and, at their head, together with duke Robert and Tancred, exerted all his courage to resist the shock of the enemy. The battle lasted for many hours; but about noon, the Christians, forced back by the multitude that pressed upon them, and exhausted with heat, thirst and fatigue, began to give way before the Saracens, and their defeat seemed inevitable, when repeated shouts and a cloud of dust rising from behind the hills, announced the arrival of the main body of the crusaders.

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* The number of the Turks and Persians is believed to have amounted to nearly two hundred thousand men, all on horseback; as to the Arabs, says a contemporary historian who was present at the battle, so great was their multitude, that God alone could count them.

Godfrey, Hugh-the-Great, and Robert of Flanders, had taken the lead with fifty thousand cavalry; Raymond of Toulouse and Adhemar of Puy were following as rapidly as possible, with the rest of the army. Each one arrayed his troops, as they came up; and, after the usual cry, "God wills it," all, with levelled lances, advanced against the Turks, who vainly endeavored to maintain the superiority which they had acquired. Unable to bear the charge of the Latin chivalry, the infidels fled in disorder, and abandoned to the Christians their camp with all their provisions and treasures (A.D. 1097).

The loss of the crusaders, after so long and severe a battle, was less than might have been anticipated; only four thousand of them are said to have fallen, and nearly all in the earlier part of the day. The loss of the Turks was far more considerable, as it amounted, for the slain only, to upwards of twenty thousand soldiers and three thousand officers, with several of their generals. Those who escaped, spread themselves, by the orders of Solyman, in large bands over the country, and despairing to defend it any longer, began to waste and destroy every thing in their way. When the crusading armies, after some days of repose, resumed their march, they found themselves obliged to go across large tracts which had been completely ravaged by the enemy. There, in barren plains or narrow defiles, under a scorching sun, and without water to quench their thirst, thousands sunk under the accumulated weight of fatigue and sickness, and most of the horses perished. Still, the survivors marched on with unshaken resolution, and at length reached a better country. After subduing many towns, and defeating many parties of Turks, they saw themselves in the midst of delightful plains, near the great and well fortified city of Antioch, the capital of Syria.

In a council of war held by the leaders, it was thought unsafe to leave so important a place behind them. Accordingly, they resolved to besiege it; an undertaking, which the strength of the ramparts, the valor of the garrison, and the imprudence of the crusaders, rendered both tedious and difficult. At first, many of the Christians, delighted with the beauty of the land, spread themselves without precaution through the neighboring plains, where they were surprised and slaughtered by the Turks. Others, forgetting their duty and the laws of the Gospel, gave themselves up to many disorders, which God did not delay to punish; want of food during winter, continual rains and other calamities having soon caused the death of many, and made others repent of their excesses. At length, the united exertions of the princes and clergy put an end to these evils. Abundance returned with the spring; the courage of the troops was revived with the restoration of good order and discipline; and the Moslems were repulsed, whenever they attempted to attack the Christian camp, whether from the town or from the neighboring country. On one occasion, particularly, they were entirely defeated, and, by the vigorous efforts of the Christian Knights, experienced such slaughter, as to lose twelve of their generals called Emirs, and fifteen hundred of their most distinguished warriors, besides a multitude of others who were drowned in the river Orontes.

Still, Antioch continued to resist with undaunted obstinacy. Every means employed by the crusaders to batter its mighty bulwarks proved ineffectual; and all their efforts might ultimately have failed, but for the following circumstance. The prince of Tarentum had of late opened secret correspondence with a Mussulman officer named Pirhous, formerly a christian, who was invested with the chief command in three of the principal towers that defended Antioch. By splendid promises, Bohemond succeeded in inducing this officer to deliver them into the hands of the Christians. The plan was concerted between them; the darkness of a stormy night facilitated its execution; and in a few hours the whole army, being introduced into the city, took possession of it on the third of June 1098. At the break of day, Bohemond planted his banner on one of the highest towers, and was, by common assent, acknowledged sovereign of Antioch and its dependencies, under the title of prince.

The joy of the crusaders at this valuable conquest, was in a very short time damped, and changed into distress. They had not yet subdued the citadel, into which a great part of the garrison had retired, nor taken measures to procure the necessary supplies of provisions, when they saw themselves besieged by an army much more numerous than their own. It consisted of three hundred and sixty thousand men, whom the Persian sultan sent to the relief of Antioch, under the command of Kerboga, prince of Mosul. This general manifested on every occasion the greatest contempt for the crusaders; and, having arrived too late to preserve the city from their invasion, he considered them as so many victims reserved for his vengeance.

Every thing, at first, seemed to favor his design. After a few days, the crusaders, having consumed all the provisions in Antioch, were exposed to a most dreadful famine, so far as to eat the flesh of horses and camels, afterwards leaves of trees, and boiled leather. Such was the excess of their misery, that many of these renowned warriors, even among the barons and knights, after having resolutely endured a thousand other hardships, now lost courage, abandoned their colors, and fled from Antioch. Both the strength and resources of those who remained, were exhausted. Several of the chief lords themselves were reduced to absolute beggary, and became completely dependent on the bounty of Godfrey even for their food, till he himself, having killed his last horse, had nothing more to give. Mourning, consternation and death reigned throughout Antioch, and the whole city seemed destined to become the sepulchre of the Christian soldiery; nor could the princes, either by exertions or entreaties, stimulate them to new combats.

In this desperate state of things, the evil suggested its remedy. The crusaders, deprived of all human assistance, placed their hopes in heaven; and, in the abyss of misery to which they were reduced, presages and marks of the return of God's special protection easily found credit among them, their warlike enthusiasm being particularly excited by the discovery of the lance which had pierced the side of our Savior, as numerous authors relate. In the mean while, Tancred, ever foremost in heroic feelings and actions, pledged himself with an oath not to turn back from the road to Jerusalem, so long as he should be followed by sixty knights; and the whole army, imitating his example, took the same oath. In fine, the unexpected discovery of some provisions in the city increased the confidence and restored the strength of the soldiers of the cross. Their activity, resolution, and energy reappeared; they felt in themselves the same intrepid ardor which they had displayed in former battles, and loudly asked to be led against the enemy.

The princes lost not a moment. The gates of Antioch were thrown open, and early on the morning of the twenty-ninth of June, one hundred thousand emaciated but brave warriors were seen marching out with noble assurance, whilst the banks of the Orontes and the neighboring hills resounded with their usual battle cry, "God wills it; God wills it." Kerboga did not imagine, at first, that the crusaders could entertain the thought of fighting, and believed they were coming to implore his clemency. His illusion having soon vanished, he hastened to draw up his numberless squadrons in battle array, and made several skilful movements for the purpose of surrounding the comparatively small host of the crusaders. The Christians, on their side, with little attention to the ordinary arts of warfare, continued to march on, their courage increasing rather than diminishing; till, having come within bowshot of the Persians, after the clarions and trumpets had sounded, both generals and soldiers rushed against the enemy.

Then only did Kerboga and his troops perceive what sort of heroes were Tancred, Godfrey, Hugh-the-Great, the Duke of Normandy and the Earl of Flanders, whose swords flashed with the rapidity of lightning. In proportion as the other chiefs arrived, they also threw themselves into the thickest of the battle; and the fight had scarcely lasted one hour, when the infidels began to waver. They endeavored, but in vain, to stop the Christian soldiers, by setting the weeds on fire; nothing could damp the enthusiasm of the crusaders; the Persian columns were driven forward, broken, and routed with dreadful slaughter. In vain too did their most courageous warriors attempt to rally upon a hill behind a deep ravine; the Christian knights, hurried on by almost superhuman valor, followed them across the precipice, and their victorious swords destroyed all who dared wait their approach. The Persians were scattered in every direction through the woods or hollows; and the banks of the Orontes, the mountains, the plains, appeared covered with fugitives abandoning their colors and throwing aside their arms. The haughty Kerboga himself, who had promised the sultan the entire defeat of the Christians, and who had, in anticipation of that event, prepared a great quantity of fetters for his prisoners, fled towards the Euphrates with a few horsemen, leaving a hundred thousand of his bravest soldiers on the field of battle. The loss of the conquerors was ten, or, according to several historians, only four thousand.

Immense was the booty in gold, arms, rich vestments, horses, cattle and provisions, which the crusaders found in the Persian camp. The whole army, loaded with wealth, and rejoicing in their abundance, entered once more within the walls of Antioch, and made the air resound with their thanksgivings for the triumph which they had obtained. To the Saracens themselves this victory of the Christians seemed so wonderful, that many were induced, on that account, to abandon the religion of Mahomet. They who defended the citadel of Antioch, struck with astonishment and terror, surrendered, in the very evening of the battle, to Count Raymond who had been left to guard the town; three hundred of them embraced Christianity; and several went through the cities of Syria, every where publishing that the God of the Christians was the only true God.

The way towards Jerusalem was now left free; this was the main object of the expedition. The princes, however, for the sake of granting to their troops a necessary repose, thought proper to postpone their further advance till the next spring. In that interval, a pestilence broke out among the crusaders, sweeping off not only thousands of the less cautious multitudes, but also many illustrious knights, and the venerable bishop of Puy, whose noble qualities of mind and heart had given much dignity and strength to the enterprise. Another sad effect of the delay just mentioned, was that it enabled the Egyptian caliph to turn the losses of the Turks to his own profit: driving them from Jerusalem, whilst he amused the leaders of the crusading hosts with proposals of alliance, he took possession of the holy city. It was therefore against this new enemy that the Christians had to fight during the last period of the crusade (A.D. 1099).

The time appointed for their departure from Antioch at length arrived. They advanced along the fertile coasts of Phœnicia, and then through the desolate lands of Palestine, without finding much resistance; at length, on the seventh of June, Jerusalem lay before their eyes. No one can sufficiently describe the pious transports which, on the appearance of the Holy City, the remembrance of our Savior's passion and death excited in every bosom, and the feelings of indignation at beholding Jerusalem in the hands of the infidels. The army marched on in haste, driving back some parties of Saracens, and almost immediately made so vigorous an assault, that the town would probably have been taken at the first onset, but for want of ladders and other necessary instruments. After many had fallen on each side to no effect, the attack was suspended, and all the energies of the crusaders were employed in constructing wooden towers, catapults, battering rams and other warlike engines.

During the fabrication of these machines, a deadly drought afflicted the army. For many days, the soldiers of the cross again experienced all the inconveniences of heat and thirst; and their number, already so much diminished by previous plagues, diseases, desertions, battles, and garrisons left in various places, became reduced to about forty thousand, one fourth of whom were unable to fight. The garrison alone of Jerusalem was more numerous than the whole host of the crusade; the town too was defended by strong fortifications, and supplied with all things requisite for a long resistance.

So many obstacles, instead of abating, seemed rather to increase the ardor of the Christians; and, as soon as the engines were completed, the attack was renewed. Early in the morning of the fourteenth of July, towers, mangonels and battering rams moved all at once against three different parts of the wall, and began to cast a tremendous shower of arrows and stones, and to make a breach. Language cannot describe the violence of this first shock. Like the princes, who fought all that day from the platform of their wooden towers, the multitude of the assailants fearlessly braved all kinds of perils; but, in return, the Saracens obstinately opposed them at every point, and, being abundantly furnished with darts, boiling oil, and Grecian fire, spread ruin and dismay among the Christians. Thus passed that whole day in one of the most tremendous encounters that the crusaders had ever sustained; night came on, and the besiegers reentered their camp, burning with indignation because the city was not taken.

On the following day, a new attempt was made to storm the city. During the whole morning, thousands of darts were heard continually whizzing through the air; beams and rocks, thrown by the engines, dashed against one another, and fell with a frightful crash upon the assailants. Many of them had already been killed, or received deep wounds at the foot of the ramparts; the others were almost exhausted; whilst the Saracens, on the contrary, seemed to fight with renewed vigor. At that moment, Raymond and Godfrey, though placed at a great distance from each other, suddenly exclaimed that they saw a celestial warrior coming to their assistance, and giving a signal to enter the town. This instantly revived the fainting hopes of the Christians; prodigious efforts were made in all quarters; the tower of Godfrey, in spite of a shower of darts and Grecian fire, was rolled forward till it touched the wall; and, a moveable bridge being let down, two illustrious brothers, Letold and Engelbert of Tournai, immediately sprung upon the battlements. They were followed by the intrepid duke and other knights, who bore down upon the Saracens with irresistible force, and rushed after them into the very streets of Jerusalem. Tancred, with the earl of Flanders and the duke of Normandy, imitated their example in another quarter; while Raymond of Toulouse, almost at the same instant forced his way into the town by scaling the walls. Thus was the Holy City, after exertions of the most heroic fortitude, at length taken by the Christians, on a friday, at three o'clock in the afternoon; a circumstance which has been carefully noticed, as coinciding with the day and hour in which our Savior expired on the cross.

Most terrible were the first moments of victory. The crusaders, exasperated by their long sufferings and by the obstinate resistance of the Saracens, being also probably afraid of new dangers, put to the sword nearly all the garrison and inhabitants of Jerusalem. The streets, mosques and citadel were filled with blood, and the number of the slain is estimated by many to have been at least seventy thousand.

After this bloody scene, the conquerors exhibited a spectacle more consonant to the principles and mild spirit of Christianity. Assuming the robe of penitents, and going up to the holy sepulchre, they bedewed with their tears the spots consecrated by the sufferings and death of our Blessed Redeemer. The princes afterwards directed their attention to the appointment of a King, for the defence and preservation of Jerusalem; and the brave, the generous, the virtuous duke of Lorraine, Godfrey, was chosen by unanimous consent. For the sake of the public good, he modestly accepted the distinguished task intrusted to him; but constantly refused the diadem and other insignia of royalty, saying that he would never consent to wear a golden crown, where the Savior of the world had been crowned with thorns.

Scarcely was Godfrey proclaimed King, when certain information arrived of the approach of a powerful army sent by the caliph of Egypt against the crusaders. The new sovereign and his undaunted knights instantly took the determination to meet the foe half-way, which they did with as much alacrity as if they had been going to a feast. After a few days, they met the enemy in the vast plains of Ascalon, near the sea. Notwithstanding the great disparity between the opposite forces, the host of the crusade having been reduced to twenty thousand men, whilst the Egyptians and their allies amounted to about four hundred thousand, the Christians gained, with less difficulty than on any former occasion, a complete victory. In a few minutes, and with the loss of but a few soldiers, they strewed the plain with ninety thousand dead bodies of the Egyptian army, and dispersed the rest. The enemy, says a contemporary historian, fell under their swords, as the grass falls in harvest before the mower;* or, to use the words of a great poet, fled at their approach, as clouds are seen flying through the air, when driven before the northern blast.* The victorious army, after gathering an immense quantity of spoils, returned in triumph to Jerusalem.

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* *Apud* Michaut, *Hist. des Croisades, vol.* I, *p.* 425–26.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE FIRST CRUSADE.—RETURN OF THE CRUSADERS.

SUCH was the result of the first crusade, one of the most heroic enterprises and most brilliant expeditions of all ancient and modern history; one which, notwithstanding the accidental interference of human passions, was sustained by the loftiest and noblest motives that ever animated an army, and brought at length to a happy issue by prodigies of valor and feats worthy of eternal remembrance. We behold a multitude of warriors, knights and princes leaving their country and their homes, their estates and their dignities, for the sake of Religion and of humanity. We see them cheerfully exposing themselves to all the dangers of a long and distant expedition; undergoing the fatigues of a painful march, the severity of the weather, or the excessive heat of the climate, famine, thirst and contagious distempers; and still, almost continually fighting against the Turks, the Persians and other foes; frequently too against their own imprudence, and the dangers occasioned by the quarrels of the leaders or the want of discipline among the troops. We see them, through the various vicissitudes of the crusade, surmounting all these obstacles, conquering all their enemies, and, at last, bringing their enterprise to a fortunate conclusion. What warlike achievement is more deserving of the admiration of posterity?

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* La Palestine enfin, après tant de ravages,
Vit fuir ses ennemis, comme on voit les nuages
Dans le vague des airs fuir devant l'Aquilon;
Et des vents du midi la dévorante haleine
N'a consumé qu' à peine
Leurs ossemens blanchis dans les champs d'Ascalon.
J. B. Rousseau, *Ode against the Turks.*

Nor can it be objected, that the success of the crusaders was owing to their overwhelming numbers; this circumstance proved rather a disadvantage, on account of the difficulty they had to procure a sufficient quantity of provisions in an unknown country. Moreover, their number was soon greatly diminished by desertion, famine, disease and battles; so that, in the end, they were far less numerous than their enemies. It is true, many bodies of fresh troops were successively sent from Europe to their assistance; but none of them arrived, having all been destroyed before reaching Syria, either by starvation, or by the swords of the Turks. Hence, the success of the first crusade could be attributed to no other cause than the heroic patience, constancy and intrepidity which the crusaders evinced, during three years, not only in a great number of particular combats, but chiefly during the sieges of Nice, Antioch and Jerusalem, and in the great battles at Dorylæum, at the Orontes and at Ascalon, against all the forces of Asia and Africa.

After this last victory, which secured their conquests and crowned all their exploits, most of the crusaders thought of returning to Europe. Count Raymond however did not proceed farther than Constantinople; but, being invested by the Emperor Alexius with princely jurisdiction over the territory of Laodicea, he retraced his steps into Syria, to take possession of this new state. Baldwin and Bohemond were already settled in their principalities of Edessa and Antioch. Robert of Flanders and Robert of Normandy reached their European dominions, and were received with great joy by their vassals and subjects; but the latter, having imprudently undertaken to dethrone his brother Henry I, king of England, was taken prisoner, and, being unable to recover his liberty, died after many years of severe confinement. Peter the hermit also revisited his native country, and, retiring to a monastery founded by himself, lived sixteen years in the practice of the most edifying virtues. As to Hugh-the-Great and Stephen of Blois, having departed from the East before the end of the crusade, shame and public discontent compelled them to go back to Asia, where they both fell whilst fighting against the infidels.

Among the other knights who returned to France, history has not forgotten two noble twin-brothers, Stephen and Peter of Salviac, whom their own age admired as models of fraternal affection. Peter having taken the cross in the council of Clermont, Stephen, though authorized by many just reasons to remain at home, determined to follow his brother, and to share with him all the perils of the crusade. In battles, they always stood side by side; and they fought together at the sieges of Nice, Antioch and Jerusalem. A short time after their return from the East, they both died in the same week, and the same sepulchre received their mortal remains; their tomb bears an inscription transmitting to posterity the remembrance of their exploits and of their admirable friendship.

KINGDOM OF JERUSALEM.

By the death or departure of most of the Crusaders, the new kingdom of Jerusalem was left to be supported by the wisdom of Godfrey and the sword of Tancred, with an army of less than three thousand men. Fortunately, this want of forces did not last long; fresh bands of crusaders daily arrived from Europe; and the new sovereign was enabled, not only to defend, but also to enlarge his conquests. He at the same time compiled and published, for the improvement of his rising state, an admirable code of laws, under the title of '*Assises de Jérusalem*,' and promoted or patronised many establishments equally beneficial to religion and social order, above all, the Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, who afterwards became so much renowned as the Knights of Malta.*

These numerous achievements were performed by Godfrey within the short space of one year. On his return from a distant expedition, he was seized with a severe illness, and died on the eighteenth of July of the year 1100, leaving behind him so unblemished a reputation of wisdom, courage and virtue, that his name, equally extolled by history and poetry, will ever live in the memory of men, as the brightest ornament of the first crusade. From his earliest years, his father, one of the greatest warriors of that age, taught him, by theory and practice, how to excel in the profession of arms. His mother, a very pious lady, inculcated upon his tender mind the maxims of our holy faith, which he ever afterwards observed, even at the head of armies, with as much regularity as if he had been in a religious house, always commencing and concluding his enterprises with acts of religion. Free from ambition and other human weaknesses, his views were always perfectly disinterested, his feelings always generous, his morals always pure; and not only did he thus constantly present a perfect model of honor and virtue, but the troops also which he commanded, were during the whole crusade, distinguished above all others for their excellent order and discipline. Never was there indeed a more admirable model of Christian chivalry; nor did fabulous antiquity ever picture to itself so accomplished a hero as Godfrey of Bouillon. He prepared for death with the same piety and fortitude of mind that he had evinced during life; and, in his last moments, recommended to his knights the promotion of the divine glory and the defence of the Holy Land. The Christians, overwhelmed with grief, buried him near the holy sepulchre, the preservation of which was so dear to his heart; and the Saracens themselves shed tears over the tomb of a prince, whom they were obliged to acknowledge, notwithstanding the difference of religion, to have been at once the mildest and the greatest of their sovereigns.*

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* Their first origin dated from the year 1048, when certain merchants of the city of Amalphi in the kingdom of Naples, trading in the Levant, obtained leave from the Saracen Caliph to build a house at Jerusalem for pilgrims, on the condition of paying an annual tribute. Shortly after, they founded, in honor of St. John the Baptist, a church and an hospital, from which they took their name; and being exceedingly favored by Godfrey and his successors, they enlarged their benevolent projects, and, besides attending the sick and pilgrims with the utmost care and assiduity, bound themselves by a vow to defend all Christians in the Holy Land against the attacks and insults of infidels. By this noble determination, the Hospitallers, without ceasing to be a *religious*, became a *military* order, and a permanent body of sacred soldiery, who conferred innumerable services on the kings of Jerusalem and on all Christendom.

The Knights Templars were instituted in 1118, also at Jerusalem, by some French and Flemish noblemen, for nearly the same purposes as the Knights Hospitallers, but under a plan and rule somewhat different. They derived their name from the first house which they possessed in the holy city, it being situated near the site of the temple of Solomon. The Teutonic order owed its establishment to some nobles from the cities of Bremen and Lubeck, who assisted at the siege of Ptolemais in 1190, and was intended for the relief of German pilgrims. There were also three military orders founded in Spain alone: the orders of St. James, Alcantara and Calatrava; and one, that of Avis, in Portugal.

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* To enable the reader more fully to appreciate the incomparable merit of Godfrey of Bouillon, we may be allowed to adduce, from authentic sources, some particular instances of his wonderful strength, generosity and piety.

During the siege of Nice, a certain Turk of gigantic stature signalized himself by the immense slaughter he made of the Christians, throwing upon them large fragments of rocks from the wall. Godfrey advanced, and shooting an arrow with a vigorous hand, sent the weapon directly to his heart, and left him dead on the battlement. During the stay of the army in Asia Minor, riding out one day on horseback in a wood, he saw a huge bear about to kill a poor soldier who was gathering sticks. Regardless of his own danger, the generous duke rode up, and seizing one of the paws of the ferocious beast with his left hand, with the right plunged his sword into its body to the very hilt, not however without a tremendous risk for his own life. In the field nothing could resist the

The first successors of Godfrey in the Kingdom of Jerusalem, were Baldwin I, his brother, and Baldwin II, his cousin. Both of them prosecuted, with great vigor, the glorious work which he had commenced; and, notwithstanding some defeats, they gained considerable advantages over the Saracens. Strong and important cities were successively conquered, and the Christians now possessed in Asia four extensive princedoms, Jerusalem, Antioch, Edessa and Tripoli. The Greeks too strove continually to recover some of their possessions in Asia Minor and Syria; and, on many occasions, under their

edge of his sword; helmets and cuirasses were broken by it to pieces. In one of the battles which preceded the capture of Antioch, a Saracen officer of extraordinary size and bravery, singled him out as the object of attack. Godfrey, indignant at such boldness, raised himself in his stirrup, and rushing against his opponent, aimed a blow which cut the Saracen in twain. The upper part of the body fell to the earth; but the headless trunk, being tied to the saddle, remained on the horse, and was thus carried into Antioch, where the awful sight spread terror and consternation among the Turks. In fine, such was the strength of the duke of Lorraine, that, being once requested by some Saracen emirs to display it in their presence, he, with one blow, severed the head of a camel from the body.

On the other hand, such was his moderation, that he never thought of vindicating by force mere private rights, or of avenging personal injuries, his sword, he used to remark, being destined to spill the blood, not of Christians, but of infidels, and that, only in unavoidable battles. At the taking of Jerusalem, which was owing chiefly to his intrepid valor, he no sooner saw victory declare in favor of the Christians, than he ceased fighting, quit his armor, and hastened to visit the holy sepulchre with the most edifying piety; in this conduct, he was soon imitated by all the crusaders. Mild and innocent as a lamb in the ordinary course of life, he was like a lion on the field of battle; whilst the other princes respected him as a perfect model of Christian chivalry, the multitude loved him as the best of fathers; and his servants being asked, before the election of a king of Jerusalem, about his private character, could say nothing against him, except that he remained too long in church after the divine offices; in consequence of which, they complained, his dinner frequently grew cold, and became almost good for nothing. This was the only fault that could be found in the whole conduct of Godfrey.

warlike and skilful emperors Alexius and his son, John Comnenus, success accompanied their efforts. Had the forces of the empire been at that time united with those of the Latins, the Turks might have been totally expelled from those extensive regions. Unfortunately, mutual diffidence always kept the two powers at a distance from each other; and, what was more unfortunate still, after the death of Baldwin II in 1131, jealousy, animosity and violent dissensions began to arise among the Latin princes themselves.

From this time, therefore, the prosperity of the Christian states began to decline in the East. The Moslems scattered through the country took advantage of every new dispute among the conquerors to harass them with a desultory warfare. At length, Zenghi, sultan of Aleppo and Mosul, attacked, stormed and took Edessa in 1144; after which his son Nouradin, pursuing the same line of policy against the Christians, began to threaten their other possessions in the East. The news of these calamitous events being spread abroad, gave occasion to the

SECOND CRUSADE—A. D. 1145—1149.

Deputies had been sent in haste from Syria to Europe, for the purpose of obtaining necessary auxiliaries. Immediately after their arrival, the crusade was preached under the direction of Pope Eugenius III, by the celebrated abbot of Clairvaux, St. Bernard, whose eloquent exhortations, supported by striking miracles, had exactly the same effect which the exertions of Peter the hermit had produced fifty years before. Such was the excitement produced in France and Germany, that King Louis the Younger and the emperor Conrad III took the cross, with all the choicest men of both nations, so as to form in a very short time two powerful armies. The Germans alone brought into the field seventy thousand horsemen with coats of mail, besides light cavalry and the infantry. The French host consisted of a hundred thousand warriors. Such imposing forces were surely more than sufficient to repair the losses suffered by the Christians in the East, and to foil all the attemps of their enemies; but, such was the perfidy of the Greeks, and the want of discipline among the Latins, that no great enterprise ever failed so completely as the second crusade.

Both armies started in the year 1147. The Germans, being the first to reach the neighborhood of Constantinople, began to experience the ill will of the Greeks, which, it must be confessed, they frequently provoked by their predatory and disorderly acts. Manuel Comnenus, who was then emperor, under the veil of friendship and by flattering promises, exhausted against them all the resources of perfidy. The crusaders, without experience against cunning, were deprived of their money and of the means of procuring necessary provisions; whilst, on the other hand, troops were secretly despatched to attack them when marching through narrow defiles. Treacherous guides led them through the wild paths of Cappadocia, where they had to endure all the horrors of a cruel famine, and finally found themselves surrounded by the Turks. The heavy-armed Germans in vain endeavored to reach the Turkish cavalry. All their courage could not protect them against numberless foes, who fled and rallied with surprising quickness, attacked their exhausted squadrons from the tops of the mountains, and harassed them by continual skirmishes. It became absolutely necessary to retreat towards Bithynia, under an incessant shower of arrows, every day adding thousands to the number of the slain. Conrad himself received two wounds; and when, at length, he reached the city of Nice, he could scarcely gather around him a tenth part of the knights and soldiers who had followed him from Europe.

The French, under the conduct of Louis, had less perhaps to suffer from the Greeks, and yet were not less unfortunate than the Germans. Victorious at first on the banks of the Meander, which was crossed in spite of all the efforts of the Turks, they experienced, after a few days, a signal overthrow near the town of Laodicea in Phrygia. This disaster was brought upon the Christian host by the imprudence of a single general. At the approach of a steep mountain, the commander of the vanguard had received orders from the king to halt on the summit, and there wait for the rest of the army. Disregarding this just command, the incautious man, after accomplishing the ascent, advanced into the plain on the other side, two or three miles beyond the spot specified: in the mean time, the Turks, who had remarked the terrible mistake, occupied the hill, and thus totally intercepted the two divisions of the crusaders.

Such was the perilous position of the French army, when the rear, commanded by the king in person, and as yet unaware of its danger, began to climb the mountain in full security and without any precaution against an attack. On a sudden, as they were toiling up the steep acclivity, a tremendous shower of arrows from the top of the hill fell upon them, spreading indescribable confusion and dismay. Numbers were precipitated headlong down the precipice, or killed by the masses of rocks hurled against them; others, who had nearly reached the summit, were forced back by the victorious enemy upon those in the rear. It was in vain that Louis, at the head of his cavalry, endeavored to protect the infantry, and repel the Turks: the steepness of the ascent, and the ferocity of their foes rendered the contest too unequal; men and horses fell together, and the king himself was in imminent danger of being killed; but springing on a rock and leaning against a tree, he defended himself with his trusty sword against several Turks, till, at the approach of night, they withdrew and thus permitted him to rejoin his surviving troops.

After these losses, and others which the Greeks and the Turks continued to inflict on them, both Louis and Conrad put to sea, in order to reach Palestine. Being arrived at Jerusalem, all the princes there present were summoned to assemble in council; and it was agreed that, instead of attempting to reconquer Edessa, which had been the original object of the crusade, the Christian forces of Syria, united with the crusaders, should undertake the siege of Damascus (A. D. 1148). The monarchs immediately took the field, approached the town, drove before them the advanced bodies of Saracens, and began the siege with such ardor, that all entertained a moral certainty of success. All at once, jealousies and quarrels among the lords disturbed the Christian camp; former animosities were revived, and treason being added to all these evils, the siege was finally abandoned. At length, Conrad and Louis, full of regret and indignation, left the Latin princes of Asia to their own wretched dissensions, and departed for Europe.

The ill success of the second crusade spread mourning over all the West, and was felt particularly in France, where loud complaints were lodged against St. Bernard, as the chief promoter of this fatal enterprise. The holy abbot, in a written apology triumphantly vindicated his conduct, showing, with equal modesty and strength of reasoning, that, exactly as the Hebrews of old more than once failed through their own fault, even in designs approved by God, so also, in the present instance, the blame was to be laid, not on the promoter of the crusade, but on the crusaders themselves, on their disorders and want of discipline, which had drawn upon them the avenging justice of the Almighty.* Shortly after (A. D. 1153), St. Bernard departed this life, at the age of sixty-three, having deserved, by his eloquence, sanctity, immense labors for religion, and the excellency of his writings, to be numbered among the most illustrious Fathers of the Church.

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* S. Bernard. *De Consideratione, lib.* II, *c.* I, *nos.* 2, 3; where he adduces the example of the Israelites who died in the desert, and especially that of the eleven tribes defeated by the tribe of Benjamin.—*Judg.* XX—18-27.

GERMANY AND ITALY UNDER FREDERIC I (BARBAROSSA).—ENGLAND AND IRELAND UNDER HENRY II (PLANTAGENET).—A. D. 1153—1189.

Conrad lived three years after his return from Palestine; at his death, in 1152, he left the crown to Frederic Barbarossa, his nephew, a prince of great learning, ability and courage, but proud, haughty and ambitious. Wishing, like the first Roman Emperors, to be considered sovereign of the whole world, he made powerful efforts, during twenty years (1157—1177,) to oppress both the See of Rome and the small states of Italy. His sacrilegious attempts to raise a schism in the Church, and to place Popes of his own creation in St. Peter's chair, were entirely defeated by the vigor of the lawful Pontiff, Alexander III, and the zeal evinced by the other sovereigns of Europe, particularly the kings of England and France (Henry II, Louis VII), in acknowledging Alexander as the only true Pope. The exertions of the emperor towards the subjugation of the Italian republics were in the beginning more successful; but the Milanese, whose city he had destroyed, having entered with the neighboring states into a common league to rebuild Milan and repel the violent usurper, he experienced from them a signal overthrow, which entirely reduced his power, and blasted his hopes with regard to the possession of Italy.

This state of things induced Frederic to come to a reconciliation with the Pope and the Italians, on the conditions which they required, especially that of renouncing the schism and abandoning his hostile demonstrations against the peninsula. The treaty was finally settled at Venice (A. D. 1177), to the satisfaction of all parties, the emperor being now as eager to testify his sincere and perfect submission to the Sovereign Pontiff, as he had before been in manifesting his opposition. It is not true, that, the Pope, as some historians relate, set his foot on the neck of Frederic, and insulted him with these words of the Psalmist: *Thou shalt walk upon the asp and the basilisk: and thou shalt trample under foot the lion and the dragon.** The story, as has been remarked by many judicious critics,† and acknowledged by impartial authors,‡ is not in keeping with the well known meekness and moderation of Alexander III, nor founded on any credible testimony. This pretended humiliation of Frederic is indeed represented in some modern pictures; but who does not know that the liberty of fictions and symbolical representations is allowed 'to painters as well as to poets?'

England, during the same period, was not less agitated than Germany and Italy. King Henry I, the last son of William the conqueror, having died in 1135, the crown had been subsequently disputed by his daughter Matilda and his nephew Stephen of Blois, earl of Boulogne. At last, in order to reconcile the jarring interests of the two parties, it was agreed that, upon the demise of Stephen, the crown should devolve to Henry, the son of Matilda and of Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, whom she had married after the death of the German emperor Henry V, her first husband. This agreement received its execution in 1154, and Henry Plantagenet ascended the throne of England under the most favorable auspices. He inherited from his father Touraine and Anjou, and from his mother Maine and Normandy. He had also received with his wife Eleanor the provinces of Poitou, Saintonge and

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* Psalm. xc. 13.

† Feller, *Dict. Histor., art. Alex.* III.—Natalis Alexander, *Hist. Eccl., Seculo* XII, *c.* II. *art.* 9, *de Alex.* III.—Baronius, and *Hist. de l'Egl. Gall. ad ann.* 1177.

‡ English authors of *Univers. Hist., Paris edit.* 1787, *book* XXV. *c.* IV., *reign of Fred.* I;—or *vol.* XCVII. *p.* 190 *of the historical part, and p.* 191, *note.*

Guienne; so that, besides England, a third part of France acknowledged his authority, and though he did homage for his continental territories as a vassal to the French king, he was more powerful than that monarch.

The reign of Henry II, like most long reigns, was marked by several important events; among others, by the martyrdom of St. Thomas, archbishop of Canterbury, and by the conquest of Ireland. The invincible courage with which the archbishop defended the rights and immunities of the church against the encroachments of the civil power, excited the animosity of the king, and so provoked the fury of four of his courtiers, that, repairing to Canterbury, they stabbed him in his own cathedral (A. D. 1170). So atrocious a deed raised a general outcry of horror and indignation, not only against the murderers, but also against the king; nor could he otherwise avert the imminent dangers to which he now found himself exposed on all sides, than by submitting to an exemplary penance for the murder to which his passionate words had given immediate occasion.

Having extricated himself from these difficulties, Henry prosecuted the design which he had long since formed of adding Ireland to his dominions. Until then, this celebrated island had never been conquered, not even by the Danes, although their multiplied ravages had inflicted a deep wound on religion, morality and civilization. Under the plea of rescuing the Irish from the evils which pervaded their country, the English monarch obtained leave from Pope Adrian IV to pay them a visit, and skilfully availed himself of intestine feuds which divided their sovereigns, to make conquests in Ireland. The natives, it is true, struggled long and desperately, even sometimes successfully, against the English; but their disunion and domestic broils prevented them from obtaining any permanent advantage, and Henry succeeded in obtaining a solid footing and extensive settlements upon their territory. From that period, the British monarchs were called "Lords of

Ireland," until 1542, when Henry VIII took the title of king, and Ireland was made a kingdom.

The remainder of Henry's reign was spent in improving the jurisprudence of his kingdom, and in various political and military transactions with foreign princes, during the course of which he generally showed himself an able monarch, a skilful general, and a courageous soldier. His greatest trouble was the disobedient and rebellious conduct of his sons, whose ingratitude he frequently experienced. So bitter was his grief, in consequence of their last revolt, that it is supposed to have accelerated his death, which happened in the year 1189.

FALL OF THE KINGDOM OF JERUSALEM.—A. D. 1187.

Since the departure of Louis and Conrad from the East, Nouradin, without much difficulty, pursued his conquests in Syria. Even Egypt, which had long been an independent sovereignty, was subdued by his generals; and the Christian colonies were more and more closely surrounded by their indefatigable foes. Their danger still increased under Saladin, a Mussulman emir, who succeeded Nouradin in 1176, and who, to the possession of extensive dominions and an alarming power, joined all the qualifications necessary to complete the ruin of a contiguous and decaying state. Talents, ambition, activity, valor; sometimes an inflexible rigor bordering on cruelty; sometimes a wonderful generosity and kindness; every thing, in fine, contributed to make him the greatest hero of Islamism and the most formidable enemy of the Christians.

It was in the year 1187, that he wrested from them the possession of Jerusalem and of nearly all Palestine. He first entered the province of Galilee with eighty thousand horsemen, and cutting in pieces a body of knights who defended that part of the country, stormed and captured Tiberias, its capital, but was stopped before the citadel. In the mean time the Christian princes held a great council in Jerusalem, to deliberate on the measures to be taken for the preservation of the kingdom. Contrary to the advice of the most prudent, it was resolved to march out against Saladin. Accordingly, the troops of the different princes, as well as those of Guy de Lusignan, king of Jerusalem; the knights Hospitallers and Templars; the garrisons of the towns; in a word, all who could bear arms, were collected, and formed an army of fifty thousand men, who immediately marched towards Tiberias.

The two opposite hosts were soon in sight of each other, and without delay prepared for battle. The whole advantage of position was on the side of the Saracens, who, occupying the summit of the hills, commanded the valleys and defiles through which the Christians had to pass before coming to close contest. These, however, continued to advance amidst a shower of darts and stones. Although the Mussulman cavalry rushed from the hills to oppose their passage, they still preserved their ranks; and, animated by the exhortations of the chiefs and the consciousness of their own danger, withstood unmoved the impetuous attack of the enemy. Saladin himself could not forbear admiring their intrepidity, and confessed, in one of his letters, that the Franks had fought that day with extraordinary valor. But they had more courage than strength; destitute as they were of food and water, and debilitated by the heat of the day, even the most vigorous among them seemed prostrated by excessive weariness. Night suspended the still dubious conflict.

The next day, the Saracens and Franks again mingled in the combat; but Saladin, as a skilful general, did not give the signal for battle till the Christian army began to languish under the rays of the meridian sun. He moreover caused the dry herbs which covered the plain, to be set on fire, so that the Christians were soon encircled by the smoke and flames which reached them on every side. In this extremity, confusion in their ranks became unavoidable; yet they continued intrepid, and formidable to their opponents, several of them rushing from among the clouds of smoke into the thickest ranks of the Mussulman forces. The Templars, above all, and the knights of St. John, by their almost supernatural efforts, would have saved the army, could it possibly have been saved; but the combined exertions of courage and despair every where found an insuperable obstacle in the multitude of their opponents, and the repeated charges of the Christian warriors served only to diminish their own numbers. At length, entirely overcome with thirst and fatigue, both their chargers and themselves fell before the Saracens, who either butchered them on the spot or took them prisoners, together with the king of Jerusalem. A few only escaped, by cutting a passage for themselves through the enemy.

Saladin did not neglect to improve the signal victory which he had gained. He directly advanced into the heart of Palestine, took possession of many cities and fortresses, and at last laid siege to Jerusalem. Deprived as this capital was of its defenders, who had just perished in the fatal battle of Tiberias, it could not long resist the victorious arms of Saladin. Moreover, the Syriac inhabitants of the city had conspired among themselves to deliver it into the hands of the conqueror. This fact being made known, increased the well-grounded alarms of the Latins, and they hesitated no longer to propose in their own name the surrender of the place, provided honorable conditions should be granted. After some difficulty, Saladin complied with a part of their request, and permitting them to retire unmolested, after having required from each person the payment of a certain sum, entered Jerusalem in October, 1187, eighty-eight years after it had been conquered by the heroes of the first crusade. There now remained in the possession of the Latins only three considerable towns in Syria, namely, Antioch, Tyre and Tripoli.

THIRD CRUSADE—A. D. 1188—1194.

THE news of the fall of Jerusalem spread consternation through all Christendom; Pope Urban III was so much afflicted, that he died of a broken heart. The western princes, who had seemed before to disregard the danger of the Christian colonies in Asia, now condemned their apathy and determined to forget their private quarrels for the common interest of Christianity, (A. D. 1188.)

Three famous potentates were at that time reigning in Europe: Frederic I, emperor of Germany, Henry II, king of England, both of whom have been already mentioned in a preceding section; and Philip II, surnamed Augustus, king of France, whose abilities raised that nation to a degree of splendor and power which it had not possessed since Charlemagne. Those three illustrious monarchs, together with the chief lords of their respective states, received the cross from the hands of William, the celebrated historian; and archbishop of Tyre. Statutes were enacted to maintain good order and discipline among the crusaders more successfully than during the foregoing crusades; and, to raise money for the expedition, a council of princes and bishops ordered that every man who did not take the cross, should give the tenth part of his revenue and personal property. This tax, called *Saladin's tithe*, from the terror which the alarming progress of Saladin inspired, was levied in England and France by royal commissaries.

The first who set out for Asia was the emperor Frederic, at the head of one hundred and fifty thousand men. How much might be expected for the success of the crusade from such an army, under a high-spirited prince of consummate skill and valor, may be easily conceived. In fact, the career of the Germans, until the death of Frederic, was but one series of victories. The Greek emperor, Isaac Angelo, who dared to attack them, when they entered his territory, had the mortification to see his troops routed, his capital in great danger, and himself compelled to supply the conqueror with provisions for several months, and with a sufficient number of vessels to convey the crusaders to the opposite shore in Asia.

The Germans continued to advance with uninterrupted success. Although many of them died before reaching Syria, the progress of their army spread terror abroad. They cut to pieces or drove before them all the Turkish forces in their way, defeated twice the army of the Sultan of Iconium, which consisted of two or three hundred thousand combatants; and, taking the city itself at the first onset, forced the Sultan humbly to sue for peace. Their discipline was equal to their bravery, and from all sides information was conveyed to Saladin of the heroic patience of the Germans in a painful and harassing march, and of their indomitable valor. If we give credit to some historians, the Mussulman prince was already preparing to retire towards Egypt, when a fatal circumstance unexpectedly delivered him from his most formidable enemy.

After crossing Asia Minor and passing the defiles of Mount Taurus, Frederic, with his army, was going along a small river, which many believe to be the very same (the Cydnus) in which Alexander-the-Great had like to have perished. The heat of the day was excessive. The emperor, enticed by the coolness and clearness of the water, threw himself into it; but, being suddenly benumbed by the cold, was taken out of the river in the agonies of death, or, as others say, was carried down by the rapidity of the current, and drowned.

His death was more fatal to his army than the loss of a great battle could have been. Many soldiers abandoned the army of the crusade; whilst the others, proceeding towards Palestine in spite of a thousand obstacles, saw their numbers so far diminished by famine, fatigue, distempers and repeated battles, that they were no longer able to contend with the hardy troops of Saladin. They therefore went to join the army of King Guy of Lusignan, who, after his deliverance from captivity, had undertaken to besiege the strong town of Acre or Ptolemais, on the Syrian coast (A. D. 1190).

Various incidents had retarded the departure of the French and English monarchs. In the interval, Henry II died, and left his place to be filled both on the throne and in the crusade by his son Richard I, surnamed *Cœur de Lion.* The new sovereign quickly made his last arrangements for the holy war; and, in order to avoid the treacheries of the Greeks, both he and Philip resolved to convey their armies to Palestine by sea. These two princes were then in the flower of their age, ardent, ambitious, brave and intrepid; but Philip was the greater king, Richard the greater warrior; Philip had, in a greater degree than Richard, qualities which entitle a prince to affection and esteem; but was inferior to him in those qualities which excite surprise and admiration. Moreover, the haughtiness and violence of Richard often procured him enemies and led him into unpleasant adventures.

Although the two monarchs had sworn inviolable friendship and fidelity to each other, contrariety of views and difference of character soon introduced jealousies and quarrels between them, which greatly impaired the cause of the crusade. Philip arrived first in Palestine, where the siege of Acre, owing to the obstinate resistance of the garrison, had already lasted nearly two years, the besiegers being themselves besieged in their camp by the innumerable troops of Saladin, who, from the neighboring mountains, constantly watched all their motions. Bloody and frequent were the conflicts, and incalculable the losses of both armies on the field of battle; many also were carried off by pestilence and famine; but the arrivals of each day supplied the losses of the preceding. The landing of Philip diffused new vigor among the crusaders; military engines were erected, the walls were battered and undermined; all the preparations were made for the assault nothing was wanted but the presence of Richard who had not yet arrived to share in the danger and glory of the attempt.

This monarch had sailed from Sicily about three weeks later than Philip, and had moreover been detained in chastising the perfidy of a Greek prince, and in subduing the rich island of Cyprus. He at last reached the Christian camp, and the siege of Acre received from his presence a new impulse. Assaults were repeatedly made; and, although the town held out for some time, it was easy to perceive that the resistance could not last much longer. The garrison, seeing their defences ruined, and all the efforts of Saladin insufficient to stop the progress of the siege, consented at last to capitulate, and the Christians took immediate possession of the city (A. D. 1191).

Thus ended the siege of Ptolemais, one of the most famous in history; one, during which such exploits were performed by the crusaders, as might, if well directed, have sufficed for the conquest of all Asia. Although it gave rise to some acts of cruelty and bloody retaliation, it also presented the sight of many acts of politeness and courtesy interchanged by the Latins and the Saracens. In times of truce, the contending nations mingled together in friendship; and at one moment they reciprocated good offices, while at another they met in impetuous and bloody conflict. Saladin was accustomed to send presents of excellent fruit to Kings Richard and Philip, who, in return, sent him jewels and productions of Europe.

The joy which the conquest of Ptolemais spread among Christian nations, was soon damped by the news that Philip intended to withdraw from the crusade. No doubt can exist that the health of this monarch had been considerably impaired by a dangerous illness; but his chief siderably impaired by a dangerous illness; but his chief motive in returning to Europe was the disgust he had conceived at the overbearing conduct and passionate temper of Richard, which ever prevented them from cordially co-operating with each other. Under such circumstances, the French king seemed justifiable in retiring from the army, on the plausible plea that he would, by so doing, rather advance the cause of the crusade. Accordingly, he took his final determination, and embarked for France, leaving behind him ten thousand men with the duke of Burgundy, to support the king of England.

By this retreat of Philip, the chief command devolved solely on Richard. After repairing the fortifications of Acre, he marched out with a considerable force, and, taking the road along the sea-shore, proceeded towards Ascalon, while vessels laden with provisions followed along the coast. On the other hand, the Saracens pursued the army as it marched, and harassed it by continual skirmishes, which led, however, to no serious consequences. But near Antipatris, at the passage of a river called Arsur, the Christians were suddenly attacked by two or three hundred thousand Moslems, whom Saladin, in order to impede the progress of the crusade, and to avenge the loss of Ptolemais, had assembled from all parts of his empire.

Richard, seeing that the battle was unavoidable, desired to make it a decisive one, and forbade his troops to commence fighting until the signal should be given. The crusaders waited for it with impatience; they could bear any thing but the shame of remaining idle in the presence of an enemy who was vigorously pressing upon them. At length, some of the most intrepid knights, forgetting the king's orders, rushed against the Saracens; and others following their example, in a few moments the engagement became general. So furious was the shock, and so thick the dust which enveloped both armies, that several fell by the sword of their own companions, who mistook them for antagonists. Richard seemed to multiply himself, and to be in every part of the field in which the danger was greatest, and every where the enemy fled at his presence. The other chiefs under him seconded his efforts; and the Mussulmans, unable to stand so impetuous a charge, fled to the mountains, calling the crusaders a nation made of iron, and which could not be broken.

In the mean time, the Christians could scarcely believe that they were so soon victorious; nor were their doubts entirely groundless. Whilst they still occupied the spot on which they had just fought, attending to their wounded companions, the engagement was renewed by a body of twenty thousand Saracens, whom their commander, a nephew of Saladin, had rallied and led back to the charge, but with as little success as before. In fine, just as the conquerors were resuming their march, the enemy, hurried on by fury and despair, again attacked them in the rear. Richard, with only fifteen knights, ran to the spot and again routed the Moslems. Their army, thus defeated three times on the same day, at last abandoned the field with the loss of thirty two emirs, and several thousand of their choicest men. Many more might have been entirely destroyed, had they not found a refuge in the neighboring forests.

Still, this victory, splendid as it was, procured more glory than real advantage to the crusaders. Yielding to the same sort of remissness which is supposed to have proved fatal to Annibal after the battle of Cannæ, Richard, instead of leading his victorious troops without delay to Jerusalem, wasted his time in repairing the town of Jaffa and the castles of the neighborhood. The Saracens recovered from their terror, and Saladin had sufficient respite to fortify the Holy City in such a manner as to threaten the most vigorous resistance. When afterwards Richard, on two different occasions, approached Jerusalem, with the intention of besieging it, the difficulty of the attempt, the inconveniences of the climate, the disunion and jealousy of the chief crusaders, and the fears which he entertained for his European dominions, induced him on both occasions to retire. This was a source of much regret and sorrow both to the army and to the king. Whilst many persons loudly murmured against him, and withdrew from his standard, he shared in the common grief, and was indignant at himself. One day, whilst pursuing a party of Saracens as far as the hills which surround Jerusalem, and from which he could see the towers and steeples of the town, he burst into tears, and covered his face with his shield, thinking himself unworthy to contemplate the Holy City which his arms could not rescue from the hands of infidels.

Notwithstanding these uncertainties and obstacles, Richard continued to wage a terrible war against the Moslems, and, by splendid feats, to secure the reputation which he already enjoyed of being the greatest warrior of his age. Immediately after the second retreat of the Christians from Jerusalem, Saladin burst into the city of Jaffa, and, putting to the sword many of the inhabitants, drove the rest into the citadel, which he besieged. The English king had now returned to Acre. At the first intelligence of the event, he sent the bulk of the army by land, while he, taking advantage of a favorable wind, set sail with seven gallies, and arrived in time to save the besieged garrison by clearing the town of its invaders.

This, however, was not enough for the impetuous courage of Richard. Disdaining to be confined within the walls of the liberated city, he marched out to challenge the Moslems, and was soon attacked by an army three times as numerous as his own; but inferiority of numbers was of little consequence, when Richard commanded in person. He repelled all the charges of the Mussulman cavalry, put it to flight, and vanquished every champion who dared to wait his approach, among others a valiant emir, whose head, right shoulder and right arm he cut off at one blow. Seeing the brave earl of Essex and his companions on the point of being slain or captured, he rushed with his usual courage, scattered the enemy like a whirlwind, and delivered his friends from their peril.* In fine, he threw himself with such ardor in the midst of the Mussulman squadrons, that, for some moments, he disappeared from the sight of his own troops. When he returned, his horse was covered with dust and blood; and he himself bristling with darts fastened in his shield and dress, resembled, according to an ocular witness, a cushion covered with needles.

It was thought that Richard, on this occasion, surpassed his former renown. His conduct drew upon him the admiration of the infidels themselves, particularly of Saphadin, the Sultan's brother, who, during the very conflict, sent him a present of two Arabian horses. His sight alone filled the Moslems with terror, and made their hair stand erect. When Saladin, after the battle, reproached the Saracen officers for having fled before a single man, "Nobody," answered one of them, "can withstand him; his approach is frightful, his shock irresistible, his feats of arms superhuman." In fact, Richard, to a mind incapable of fear, added an uncommon degree of muscular strength, and such was the impression of terror produced by his exploits in Palestine, that, for a century after, the Saracen cavaliers used his name to check their horses, and mothers, to terrify their children.

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* This readiness of the king to succor his fellow-crusaders in every danger to which they might be exposed, was repaid by their devotedness in defending his life and liberty at the expense of their own. This appeared chiefly during the first sojourn of the Christian troops in the neighborhood of Jaffa. Richard, having one day gone to the chase in a forest, stopped to sleep under a tree, but was suddenly awakened by the cries of those who accompanied him, and who saw a troop of Saracens rapidly advancing to take him prisoner. He quickly mounted his horse, and began to fight with his usual valor; but, being surrounded on all sides, he would certainly have been captured or slain, had not one of his followers, named William of Pratelles, drawn the attention of the foes to himself, by exclaiming "I am the king; save my life." The king, being thus enabled to make his escape, retired to Jaffa; whilst William, having delivered himself into the hands of the Mussulmans, was conducted to Saladin, who knew how to appreciate so noble an action, and, instead of punishing his deceit, praised his fidelity. Nor was Richard ungrateful towards the generous knight; in order to rescue him from captivity, he willingly returned ten of the principal emirs who had been taken prisoners in the battle of Antipatris.

This interesting event is not indeed mentioned by Lingard; still, it cannot be well doubted, being taken from authentic documents of that epoch, and resting on the unanimous testimony of Michaut, *Hist. des Croisades, vol.* II, *p.* 473—Maimbourg, *Hist. des Crois. vol.* II, *p.* 418—F. D'Orleans, *Hist. des Révol. D'Anglet., vol.* I, *p.* 230; who all refer the fact to the end of the year 1192.

Still, all these glorious achievements were lost for the crusade. The disunion of the crusaders, which the haughtiness of the English monarch contributed much to increase, the jealousy of the other chiefs against him, and, above all, the repeated information which he received of great disturbances taking place in England, made him earnestly desire the conclusion of a treaty of peace, and he repeatedly proposed it to Saladin. At last, a truce was agreed upon between them for three years and eight months. By it, the Christians were left in possession of the cities of Palestine situated along the coast, and the Saracens kept the other towns with Jerusalem, under condition of granting to the pilgrims free access to the holy sepulchre.

Such was the result of the third crusade, which had seen the most powerful monarchs, and, as it were, all the forces of Europe fighting against those of Asia during three years in succession. It led, indeed, to the conquest of the Island of Cyprus, which Richard gave to Guy of Lusignan, the disappointed king of Jerusalem, and to the surrender of Acre, a town of considerable importance for the Christians, but did not recover the Holy City, which was the professed object of the crusade. Splendid and glorious were the personal exploits of Richard; but his vacillating conduct showed that he possessed neither all the talents of a great general, nor that constancy of mind so necessary for the success of any arduous enterprise. The superiority in both these particulars, ought certainly to be given to Saladin, who, notwithstanding some defeats, finally remained master of Jerusalem and of the far greater portion of the Holy Land.

The English monarch, having nothing more to do in

Palestine, sailed from Acre in October 1192. The inhabitants wept at his departure, nor could he suppress his own emotion. Many and disastrous were the adventures which attended his voyage. The vessel in which he sailed being wrecked on the coast of the Adriatic Sea, the king resolved to cross Germany incognito and in the guise of a pilgrim, to avoid the snares of his numerous enemies; but even this precaution could not save him from the disasters which he feared. Being recognized at Vienna in Austria, Duke Leopold, whom he had cruelly offended during the siege of Ptolemais, arrested him, and confined him as his prisoner in a strong castle. The royal captive was afterwards delivered into the hands of the German emperor, Henry VI, also his enemy, who kept him in prison till a large sum of money was sent from England for his ransom. At length, Richard was allowed to pursue his journey without further molestation. At Antwerp, he found his fleet; and, after a few days navigation, landed on the shores of England. The recollection of his recent exploits and misfortunes having obliterated the remembrance of his former faults, he was received with universal joy, after an absence of more than four years (A. D. 1194).

FOURTH CRUSADE.—A. D. 1195—1198.

Saladin did not long enjoy the satisfaction of having maintained his superiority in Asia, and particularly in the Holy Land, against the combined efforts of the European princes. One year had scarcely elapsed since the conclusion of his treaty with Richard, when death terminated his career. Finding his end approaching, he commanded the shroud in which his body was to be enveloped, to be carried through the streets, and an emir to cry out with a loud voice: "Behold what Saladin, the mighty conqueror of the East, will carry away with him of all his vast dominion." He died at Damascus (A. D. 1194)—a monarch in whose character, although not altogether blameless, humanity and justice were more conspicuous than in any other Mussulman conqueror.

The death of this great Sultan was followed by civil dissensions among the Moslems, which might have proved very detrimental to their power, had the Christians been more united among themselves. The sons of Saladin seized upon such portions of their father's empire as they could obtain, but his brother Saphadin, otherwise called Malek-Adel, finding himself equally beloved and respected by the soldiers, waged war against these young princes, and took possession of the greater part of Syria.

This was a favorable opportunity for another crusade. Pope Celestine III exhorted all Christendom to improve it by a generous effort, and to take up arms again in favor of Jerusalem. In England and France, his call was little heeded, Richard and Philip being now too actively engaged in war against each other, to quit their dominions; but in Germany, so many persons offered themselves, after the example of the emperor Henry VI, that three armies were quickly assembled for this new expedition. Henry, however, with the most numerous of the three, did not proceed farther than Sicily, where he put an end to the power and race of the Norman sovereigns. The other two armies reached Palestine, and gained at first great advantages over Saphadin. Unfortunately, new quarrels among the leaders impeded their further progress, and the news of the emperor's death induced them to return to Europe, for the election of his successor (A. D. 1198.) Thus the hope which had been entertained with regard to the recovery of the Holy Land was again disappointed.

FIFTH CRUSADE.

FOUNDATION OF THE LATIN EMPIRE OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

A. D. 1199—1204.

Another crusade soon followed, productive of the most singular and unexpected effects. Although the ill success of the foregoing expeditions had greatly abated the enthusiasm for the holy war, still the letters of Pope Innocent III and the eloquent exhortations of a zealous priest, called Foulques de Neuilly, soon revived in many generous hearts an ardent desire of reconquering Jerusalem. None, it is true, of the crowned heads, owing to their fear of each other, engaged in this new attempt to liberate Palestine; but it was vigorously pursued by several Italian and French lords, under the command of Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, and Baldwin, earl of Flanders.

These new crusaders determined, as Kings Richard and Philip had formerly done, to convey their armament to Palestine by sea. A treaty was entered into with the republic of Venice, by which the Venetians agreed, not only to supply the crusading army with vessels at a stipulated price, but even to share in the enterprise. The fleet was soon ready; but the unexpected departure of several among the barons and knights, by a different way, greatly perplexed the others, who, although they melted down their plate, could not make up the sum required. In this distress, the famous Doge Henry Dandolo opened a new negotiation, and offered, not only to unite with the French in the crusade, but also to wait for the entire payment of their debt till the end of the expedition, provided they would first aid the Venetians in reconquering the city of Zara, in Dalmatia, which had been taken from the republic some time before by the king of Hungary. The offer was accepted, and Zara, being vigorously attacked both by land and sea, surrendered at discretion (A. D.

1202). It now seemed that nothing more could retard the voyage of the crusaders; but just at this juncture, there came from another quarter a request of an extraordinary nature and promising the happiest results; this request again diverted them from their former design, and gave a new direction to the operations of the crusade.

Isaac, the emperor of Constantinople, had lately been expelled from the throne by his brother Alexius, who moreover deprived him of his sight, and confined him in prison. Another Alexius, the son of the dethroned monarch, having made his escape from the hands of the usurper, went through the various countries and courts of Europe, to excite compassion and obtain assistance for his unfortunate father. The French and the Venetians had not yet sailed from Zara, when the deputies of that young prince, who were soon followed by himself, arrived in their camp. He promised with an oath, if they would expel the usurper and replace Isaac on the throne, to give two hundred thousand marks of silver, to facilitate the conquest of the Holy Land, to maintain there, during his life, five hundred knights for its defence, and to reestablish among the Greeks the authority of the Roman Pontiff. Notwithstanding the tempting promises and engaging manners of young Alexius, his proposal did not meet the unanimous approbation of the crusaders, many rejecting at once the idea of being again diverted from the main object of their enterprise. Still, the offers were so advantageous in themselves, and seemed moreover so well calculated to further the ultimate result which they wished to obtain, that most of the barons readily accepted them on the terms proposed. Accordingly, the fleet, having on board prince Alexius, set sail from Zara; and, after a short and prosperous passage, came within sight of Constantinople (A. D. 1203).

A siege of ten days was sufficient to reduce that celebrated capital. After many skirmishes, a general attack was agreed upon by the Latins, and took place on the seventeenth of July, both by land and sea; the French on the one side, and the Venetians on the other, seeming to rival each other on that day for the prize of undaunted courage. Still, they would perhaps have been overcome by numbers, had not Henry Dandalo set them an example of heroic boldness and intrepidity. Although at the age of more than eighty years, and almost blind, he ordered, with tremendous threats in case of disobedience, that he should be landed, with the great standard of St. Mark before him. In compliance with the command, his vessel was immediately pushed to the shore, close under the walls; the rest of the fleet followed; and, in spite of darts, stones and Grecian fire thrown by the besieged, twenty-five towers were soon in the power of the assailants. After this, Dandolo, without loss of time, flew to the assistance of the French who were opposed by innumerable forces. The Greeks retreated; consternation spread through Constantinople; and the usurper, more terrified than any of the citizens, fled during the night from the town, carrying along with him his treasures and the insignia of the imperial dignity.

The inhabitants opened their gates to the conquerors. The old emperor was delivered from his prison, reascended the throne with universal applause, and ratified the promises made by his son to the Latins. But it was an easier task to confirm them by word and writing, than to carry them into execution. The heavy tribute which Isaac and Alexius, in order to pay their debt, were obliged to impose on the citizens; a dreadful conflagration, which raged during eight days in the capital; and a variety of other incidents, excited public hatred and contempt against the two emperors; whilst the crusaders also were indignant at their delay in carrying out the treaty. The most dangerous of their enemies was a young lord of the court, known under the surname of Murzuphlis, who secretly aspired to the supreme power. Whilst he deceived the sovereigns by an exterior show of zeal for their interest, he left nothing untried to incense the multitude both against them and against the Latins. In fine, the unwary princes having fallen victims to his intrigues and perfidy, he was acknowledged emperor in their place, and immediately prepared to oppose the efforts which he foresaw the crusaders would make to punish his crime and avenge the death of those whom they had taken under their protection.

In fact, the intelligence of the murder of the young Alexius had no sooner reached their camp, than they determined to kindle anew the flames of war, and attack the imperial city a second time. They knew well the danger of the attempt, much greater indeed then, from the fury of the Greeks, than it was before; but so little effect had this knowledge on the minds of those intrepid warriors, and so much did they rely on their valor and their swords, and on the protection of heaven, that, even before going to the assault, they agreed among themselves upon the measures to be taken for the preservation and government of their conquest.

Not to divide their forces, they conducted the whole expedition by sea, and directed it against one single part of the city. The galleys approached the wall, and made a furious attack, which lasted until three o'clock in the afternoon, with more courage however than success on the part of the assailants; for they every where met so determined a resistance, that the multitude of their opponents and the ravages of the Grecian fire compelled those who had landed, to return to their vessels and withdraw to a distance. Still, instead of losing courage, they seemed inspired with redoubled ardor. Three days were spent in repairing the injured machines, and in consulting about a further attempt. The leaders of the army judging that a single vessel did not contain a sufficient number of troops to effect a successful assault on any particular spot, it was resolved to join two vessels for each point of attack.

On the fourth day (12th of April 1204), the assault was recommenced, and the conflict carried on during the whole morning with the same animosity as before, and also with some advantage on the side of the Greeks. In an instant, however, the fortune of the day was changed. About noon, a wind arising from the north, made the vessels approach nearer to the wall; two of them lashed together, called the *Pilgrim* and the *Paradise*, were brought close to one of the towers, and by means of a moveable bridge, two intrepid warriors, Peter Alberti, a Venetian, and Andrew d'Urboise, a French knight, sprang upon the battlement. The others followed in multitudes; three gates were at the same time broken by the battering rams, and the whole host of the crusaders entered the town, driving before them innumerable troops of soldiers and inhabitants, who fled at their approach like so many flocks of sheep. One Latin put to flight a hundred, or even a thousand Greeks; and such was the terror which seized the vanquished, that they imagined a French cavalier whom they saw advancing at the head of his troop, to be fifty feet high. The principal contriver of so many evils, Murzuphlis, after some faint efforts to rally his citizens, made his escape from the city during the night.

The following day, Constantinople was pillaged; and, although the Greeks had time to conceal a great part of their most valuable effects, the conquerors collected an immense booty in gold, silver, jewels and other precious articles. Undoubtedly, several acts of violence, notwithstanding the strict prohibitions of the chiefs, were committed by a victorious soldiery; still, implicit credit ought not to be given to the partial and virulent testimony of exasperated Greeks. From other and more impartial accounts, it appears that there was much less actual bloodshed than either the particular circumstances of the victory or the dangerous position of the conquerors might naturally have occasioned; and that many noble and generous actions were witnessed on that occasion, notwithstanding the cupidity and licentiousness which ever accompany the sacking of a great city.

Thus was Constantinople, a very extensive city, well fortified and well defended on every side, containing one million at least of inhabitants, and upwards of two hundred thousand fighting men, taken twice, within a short interval, by a handful of warriors whose whole number was at most twenty thousand. In consequence of the agreement entered into previously to the first assault, twelve commissaries, six French and six Venetian, proceeded to the election of an emperor. After mature deliberation, their unanimous votes proclaimed for that high dignity, Baldwin, earl of Flanders, who possessed it only one year, and thus completed that resemblance with Godfrey of Bouillon, which he had in every other respect, in valor, ability and virtue. Dandolo, Boniface, and other leaders of the crusade, received proportionate and splendid preferments in the newly conquered empire, as a just recompense for their glorious exploits and services; whilst the remnants of the latter Greek dynasties fled to Asia, and founded there two new states which they called the empires of Nice and Trebisonde.

It is but natural to presume that such extraordinary and complicated events did not permit the heroes of the fifth crusade to pursue their former project of delivering Jerusalem. They were now too much occupied in defending their new possessions, to think of any other conquest; nor was it without great difficulty that even the Latin empire of Constantinople could subsist for some time. Successively deprived, by death, of its magnanimous defenders, and surrounded by enemies, it possessed but a precarious existence, and, after a short duration of fifty-seven years, again fell into the power of the Greeks.

WARS THROUGHOUT EUROPE—A. D. 1200—1226.

Whilst some French and Italian nobles were dividing among themselves the spoils and provinces of the Greek empire, the flames of war were kindled throughout the various parts of western Europe. The Christian inhabitants of Spain had, it is true, very little share in the crusades undertaken by the other nations of Christendom; but they were themselves engaged in a permanent crusade against the Moors, and the whole Peninsula was a theatre of almost uninterrupted warfare. During the course of the twelfth century, as well as in the preceding ages, both parties had alternately gained victories and suffered defeats, the loss, however, being more frequently on the side of the Moors. In the beginning of the thirteenth century, the conflict between the two nations assumed a more threatening and formidable aspect than it had done for a long time. The Miramolin (commander-in-chief) of the Spanish and African Moslems was now making immense preparations to crush at once all the Christian kingdoms of Spain. The king of Castile, Alfonso IX, who was particularly exposed to the gathering storm, called to his assistance the knights of France and Portugal, together with the kings of Arragon and Navarre (D. Pedro II—Sanchez VII), to oppose the common enemy; and Pope Innocent III willingly extended to their army the privileges usually granted to the crusaders. Their combined forces consisted of about one hundred thousand warriors; those of the Miramolin, the most numerous that Spain had ever beheld, amounted to four hundred and fifty thousand combatants, one-third of whom were cavalry.

The confederates came in sight of the Moors near a ridge of mountains called *Sierra-Morena*, which separates Andalusia from Castile. It was just behind these mountains that Mohammed, the Saracen prince, had encamped his army in a strong position, at the entrance of a vast plain called *Navas de Tolosa.* When the Christians arrived at the ridge, they found no other way to pass it than a narrow defile occupied by the Moors, in which, according to an expression of the king of Castile, one thousand men could have stopped all the warriors of the world; fortunately, a peasant of the country discovered to the leaders a safer and easier road, which conducted them to the top of the mountain. Mohammed, quite surprised at their sudden appearance, first sent bodies of troops to dispute the spot with them, and afterwards endeavored to bring on a general battle, whilst he justly supposed they had not yet recovered from the fatigues of a long and difficult march. The Christians defeated both his attempts, repelled the skirmishers, and took, during two days, the repose which they needed.

On the third day, the sixteenth of July (1212), they advanced in good order against the enemy. The Miramolin appeared on a height, surrounded by his bravest troops and by a tremendous iron chain which had to be broken before they could reach his person. The onset and the resistance were equally furious and obstinate; and, notwithstanding the prodigies of valor performed by the kings of Castile, Arragon and Navarre, the victory remained uncertain nearly the whole day. A last and desperate effort made by the Christian knights spread confusion and terror among the infidels: the intrepid king of Navarre first of all broke the iron chain; the whole army rushed in, and the Saracens were either cut in pieces or dispersed in every direction. Their haughty sovereign, who had anticipated an easy victory and the conquest of all Christendom, fled in despair, having lost two hundred thousand men; whereas the Christians did not lose more than twenty-five or thirty soldiers, as contemporary historians and eye-witnesses testify.* For this amazing success the conquerors acknowledged themselves indebted to a special interference of God in their favor, and returned Him their solemn thanks on the field of battle.

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* See Roderic Tolet. *lib.* VIII;—*Epist. Regis. Alf. ad Inn.* III;—Mariana, *lib.* II;—F. D'Orléans, *Hist. des Révol. d'Esp. ad ann.* 1212;—Fleury, *Hist. Ecclés. c,* LXXVII, *no,* 11;—Désormeaux, *Abrégé Chronol. de l'Hist. d'Esp. vol.* II, *p.* 112.

If this great victory did not entirely prostrate, it at least considerably weakened the power of the Saracens in Spain. Nearly the whole of this century was for them an uninterrupted series of disasters. On one side, the brave and pious king Ferdinand III, of Castile, took from them Cordova, Seville, and many other important cities; on the other, James I, king of Arragon, subdued the Balearic Isles, with the two kingdoms of Murcia and Valentia, and added them to his own dominions.

Not less important were the military transactions which the same period witnessed in Germany, France and England. The death of the German emperor Henry VI, at the age of thirty-two years, had left the imperial crown to be disputed by two mighty competitors, Philip, duke of Suabia, and Otho, duke of Saxony. The latter seemed to prevail for a time, but was himself finally obliged to yield the sceptre to young Frederic II, son of the late emperor Henry, and grand-son of Frederic Barbarossa, whom he afterwards imitated and even surpassed in his reputation for ability, his ambition, his transitory success, and subsequent disasters.

France also and England had been engaged, ever since the third crusade, in a vigorous war against each other. By Richard and Philip Augustus, formerly intimate friends, and now obstinate rivals, the contest was carried on for several years with alternate success; but the death of the lion-hearted king gave the French monarch great advantage. He then conquered Normandy and several other continental provinces of the British crown. John, surnamed Lack-land, the successor of Richard, not having been able to preserve, seemed determined at least to recover his transmarine possessions. For this purpose, and for other causes, a powerful confederacy was formed by him, the emperor of Germany, the count of Boulogne, and the earl of Flanders, against France alone, which was obliged to divide its forces, in order to oppose so many enemies. Part of the troops were sent to the western provinces, where John had effected a landing; his progress, rapid in the beginning, was suddenly arrested by the arrival of Louis, the son of Philip, who even compelled him to retire, with a great loss both of men and baggage. But the final result of the campaign was to be decided in the North. There, after gaining a naval victory against the French fleet, the English forces having landed under the command of the earl of Salisbury, were joined by their allies, and formed with them an army of more than one hundred and fifty thousand men, who hastened to invade the French territory. To this overwhelming multitude Philip could oppose only fifty thousand combatants; but inferiority of numbers was compensated by the devotedness and bravery of his knights, the choicest men of the nation.

The army met at Bouvines, an obscure village between Lille and Tournay. The French army took a position which obliged the enemy to face, during the whole engagement, the dust, the wind, and the rays of the sun; which disadvantage greatly contributed to his entire defeat. The conflict, however, was long and obstinate; and so furious were the efforts of the combatants, that the chief leaders themselves, Philip and Otho, ran great risk of their lives. At last, the army of the confederates was broken, routed on all sides, and pursued with tremendous slaughter. The emperor made his escape; the other generals were taken prisoners; and the French king had thus the happiness, not only to save his kingdom from impending ruin, but also to obtain a lasting superiority over all his enemies (A. D. 1214).

The battle of Bouvines having annihilated all the hopes of King John with regard to France, he set sail for England, where a still more disgraceful trial awaited him at his very arrival. The excesses of his passionate temper and dissolute life having previously excited much indignation against him, he now became, in consequence of his late disasters, an object of contempt to his own subjects. The

English barons took secret measures to form a powerful league against him, and having succeeded in assembling a large body of men, asked of the king, with threats of a civil war, the revival of those privileges which Edward the Confessor had granted to the nation, but which had been more or less disregarded by the generality of his successors. John at first positively refused; afterwards, seeing the numerous forces of the barons, he yielded to their request, and even granted more than had been originally asked, by subscribing an authentic act which comprised all his grants, and which, under the name of *Magna Charta*, was for centuries looked upon as the basis of the British constitution.

The king, however, soon appeared dissatisfied with regulations which had been extorted from his fears, and availed himself of the first opportunity to declare that he would not suffer himself to be led by them in the government of his kingdom. This produced a second civil war, in which the English lords applied to the French monarch for assistance, and offered the crown to his eldest son. Accordingly, Louis crossed the sea, and, with the help of his partisans, was acknowledged king both in London and in many provinces, with hopes of subduing in a short time the other parts of the realm. But the unexpected death of John, whom a violent fever carried off after an illness of a few days, totally changed the face of affairs: patriotism was revived in the hearts of the English lords; many of them gradually abandoned Louis, and rallied around young Henry, son of the deceased monarch. He was crowned at Gloucester, and the care of his person, together with the title of guardian of the kingdom, was entrusted to the valor and fidelity of the earl of Pembroke, otherwise called earl-marshal (A. D. 1216).

This faithful and able minister immediately took the best measures to secure the crown on the head of his royal ward. To discredit the French party, reports of depredations committed by the foreigners and of their contempt for the natives, were industriously circulated; all Englishmen who returned to the allegiance of their lawful sovereign, were promised the restoration of their former liberties; a numerous host of brave warriors was quickly assembled, and a religious character was given to the expedition. As soon as Pembroke saw his followers animated with his own ardor, he marched to Lincoln, and, surprising the main body of the hostile forces, gained a complete victory. Shortly after, a French fleet, carrying auxiliary troops, was also defeated between Dover and Calais. By this sudden destruction of his resources, Louis, who had until then kept London and several of the barons on his side, was compelled to give up all hope of success. A negotiation was instantly opened, and the terms having been settled without much difficulty, Louis returned to France, where he succeeded his father Philip on the throne (A. D. 1223). Having occupied it three years, during which he showed himself well worthy of it by his lion-like courage and exemplary virtue, he died in 1226, whilst returning from an expedition against the Albigenses.

The Albigenses, so called from the city of Alby in the south of France, where their numbers appeared greater than in any other place, were sectarians, whose principles, taken from the ancient Manicheans and Gnostics, aimed equally at the destruction of religion, social order, and humanity. Shocking and frightful were the ravages, depredations and cruelties which they committed during a part of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, pillaging, burning and killing, wherever they found any resistance to their abominable tenets. The lives of their fellow-mortals, as well as the most sacred objects of religion, were a mere sport for them; and, during a long time, every attempt to check the growing evil proved ineffectual.*

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* These facts are incontestably proved by the *History of the Albigenses* of Peter des Vaux de Cernay, an eye-witness;—by the letters of Pope Innocent III;—the 27th Canon of the third General Council of

After many years spent to little purpose by holy missionaries, such as St. Bernard, St. Dominic, and others, in endeavoring to convert these wretched and infuriated people by means of patience, meekness, instruction and prayer, it was unanimously thought necessary to oppose coercive measures to their excesses and disorders. Troops were raised as for a crusade, and marched against the Albigenses under the command of Count Simon de Montford, a general of great energy and courage, who, being invested with full military and civil power, pursued with unrelenting vigor, and sometimes with excessive severity, those desperate sectarians, whom he thought it impossible otherwise to subdue. Sometimes abandoned by a considerable portion of his troops, he however went on, and gained signal advantages over the numerous forces of his opponents, whether Albigenses or their allies. His death, which happened in 1218, permitted them, it is true, to regain for a time their former ascendency; but, being again defeated by King Louis VIII, their party was finally crushed during the minority of Louis IX.

CONQUESTS OF GENGHIS-KAN IN ASIA.—A. D. 1205—1227.

DURING the first part of the thirteenth century, Asia was, like Europe, the theatre of astounding revolutions. Its whole centre had been, for many ages, occupied by numberless tribes scarcely known to the civilized world, and designated by the common name of Tartars. The Moguls, one of those tribes, were confounded with the

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Lateran, in 1179;—the 20th Can. of the Council of Avignon, in 1209;—etc. etc.

On the errors, crimes, and the whole history of these sectarians, see Natalis Alexander, *Dissertationes in Hist. Eccles. sæcul.* XII, *cap.* III, *Art.* I, *vol.* VII, *p.* 65;—Bérault-Bercastel, *Hist. de l'Egl. b.* XXXIX;—*Hist. de l'Eglise Gallic. b.* XXIX;—Bergier, *Diction. Théolog. art. Albigeois;*—Butler, *Lives of the Saints, 4th of August, note;*—Hurter, *Hist. of Pope Inn.* III, *b.* XIV, *etc.*

others in the same obscurity, when Temujin, or Genghis-Kan, rendered them for ever famous by his conquests, and by the foundation of an empire which, comprising in extent no fewer than thirteen or fourteen millions of square miles, was probably the greatest unbroken empire that ever existed.

Temujin was the son of a Mogul prince, and had been raised with great care under the direction of a skilful minister. The death of his father and the rebellion of his subjects compelled him to fly for safety to the court of the chief sovereign of his nation. There he began to display that wonderful talent and activity, that consummate prudence and skill both in war and government, which afterwards raised him so much above all the other princes of Asia. But, in the beginning of his public career, he seemed to experience nothing but contradictions. The superiority of his merit soon excited the jealousy of many persons at court, and even that of the sovereign himself, to such a degree, that a powerful league was formed against Temujin, who endeavored in vain, by measures of prudence, to frustrate its effects. Seeing his efforts useless, he on his side raised a numerous army, attacked his enemies, and gained a decisive victory, which, being supported by other advantages, united under his sway all the Mogul tribes.

He no sooner found himself master of vast dominions, than he resolved to confirm his authority by the public homage of all his vassals, and to extend still further the boundaries of his empire. The former of these designs he accomplished in 1205, by convoking a general assembly of the Tartar princes subject to his power; and it was on this occasion that he received the name of *Genghis-Kan*, which means *King of Kings*. The latter project was the object of his attention during the whole of his reign, which lasted-twenty two years; and China and Persia, with many other countries, after having been the objects of his ambition, became the reward of his gigantic efforts.

It was particularly in the two regions just mentioned that war conducted by Genghis-Kan spread all its horrors and ravages. Neither an immense wall formerly built by the Chinese to protect their frontiers from invasion, nor any other bulwark and means of resistance, could save a flourishing empire from the attacks of those numberless hordes of Tartars, whom warlike enthusiasm and thirst for plunder rendered superior to all sorts of dangers and fatigues. The long struggle which the natives maintained against this terrible foe, only served to increase their misery; a considerable part of their country was subdued, and Genghis-Kan established in it a governor under the title of King.

This event was followed by the conquest, or rather devastation of Persia, India, Karazm and other extensive regions. The Sultan of Persia, Mohammed, having had the imprudence to provoke the indignation and resentment of the Mogul conqueror, Genghis-Kan marched against him at the head of seven hundred thousand men, commanded under him by his four sons. The rapidity of his conquests cannot be better expressed than by comparing it to a furious and destructive torrent which sweeps every thing before it with irresistible fury. Mohammed, with five hundred thousand Persian and Karazmian soldiers, endeavored in vain to stop the progress of the Tartars; he had the mortification to see all his efforts baffled, his troops constantly overcome, his most flourishing cities sacked and destroyed by the conquerors, and himself completely overthrown in a general battle on the banks of the river Jaxartes, near the Caspian Sea, where he lost one hundred and sixty thousand men. This defeat reduced Mohammed, with all his family and kingdom, to the last extremity. Every thing was destroyed with fire and sword in those unhappy countries, and millions of the inhabitants perished, a number which will not appear incredible, if we consider that there never was perhaps a greater scourge of nations than Genghis-Kan, and that, according to some historians, the whole number of towns laid waste or destroyed by his armies may be supposed to amount to fifty thousand.*

This terrible conqueror was preparing a new expedition against the remotest parts of Asia, when he died (A. D. 1227), at the age of sixty-five years, leaving several sons, the heirs as well of his enterprising and warlike spirit as of his vast dominions. Two of them particularly, Octay and Toley, led the Moguls to new victories. Those provinces of China which had, till now, escaped the Tartar yoke, were subdued like the rest. At the siege of Pekin, the capital, the Tartars employed machines which cast enormous fragments of rock; while the Chinese, on their side, darted iron tubes filled with a certain powder, which, bursting upon the besiegers with a frightful explosion, consumed every thing within a circumference of two thousand feet. These terrible effects, so similar to those produced by gunpowder, seem to show that it was known and used in China, long before its discovery in Europe. In sixteen days and nights, a million of persons, Chinese and Tartars, perished at that siege.

From the western frontier of Tartary, Batu-Kan, a grand-son of Genghis-Kan, carried the devastation of war through Russia and Poland as far as Hungary and Austria; fortunately, his passage was more like a transient storm than a permanent conquest. Another Mogul chieftain, named Hulagu, took Bagdad in the year 1258, and thus put an end to the power of the Arabian caliphs; but, having crossed the Euphrates in pursuit of new conquests, his troops were defeated and repulsed by the sultans of Syria and Egypt. This however was but a trifling check for the successors of Genghis-Kan, and they long after continued powerful in all Central Asia.

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* See, for the destructive conquests of Genghis-Kan, *Univ. Hist., end of 46th and beginning of 47th vol.*—Anquetil, *Précis de l' Hist. Univ., vol.* IV, *p.* 382—396;—Michaut, *Hist. des Croisades, vol.* IV, *p.* 111—121;—Lebeau, *Hist. du Bas Emp. vol.* XXI, *p.* 412—424.

SIXTH CRUSADE—A. D. 1217—1244.

THE fifth crusade having failed to recover the Holy Land, a new one was earnestly desired by the Christians of Syria; and reports were diligently circulated that they stood in great need of speedy assistance. However, the necessary succor, owing to a variety of obstacles, was long delayed, when, at length, fifty thousand children almost simultaneously enlisted in the holy cause, in France and Germany. To them, they maintained, Almighty God had reserved the honor of rescuing his Holy City from the hands of infidels. Under this illusion, many embarked at Marseilles, but either perished during the voyage by shipwreck near the shores of Italy, or were betrayed to the Saracens, among whom several suffered martyrdom. Others, after incredible difficulties, reached Genoa; but the Genoese wisely commanded them to evacuate their territory. They then returned to their homes; and, although a great number died on the road, many arrived in safety, and escaped the fate which had overtaken the first bands of their young fellow adventurers.

When Pope Innocent heard of this crusade, he is reported to have said: "While we are asleep, these children are awake." At length, his untiring exertions, and those of his successor Honorius III, succeeded in raising numerous troops of crusaders in France, England, Holland, Germany and Italy. As all were not ready at the same time, but set out in different years, from different points, and for different places, this circumstance produced, not one expedition only, but a series of expeditions, making the sixth crusade very long and complicated. Some went to Portugal, where they aided the Christians of that country in conquering the Moors in the great battle of Alcazar (A. D. 1218). Others arrived in Palestine under the command of the kings of Hungary and Cyprus, where, after gaining some advantages, they met with disappointment and disasters instead of success. The king of Cyprus died at Tripoli, on the coast of Syria; and the king of Hungary returned to his kingdom. This circumstance, and the continual arrival at Ptolemais of fresh supplies, left John of Brienne, the titular king of Jerusalem, more at liberty to direct as he thought proper the military operations of the crusaders.

He resolved to attack Egypt, then the most valuable portion of the Mussulman empire, and the store-house, as it were, from which they drew continually new supplies of provisions, ammunition and troops. Accordingly, the Christian army sailed from Ptolemais, and laid siege to Damietta, which was the key of Egypt on that side. The town, well supplied and ably defended, resisted eighteen months, and was not taken until, of seventy thousand inhabitants, scarcely three thousand remained alive. So great was the terror which both the siege and the capture of Damietta spread among the Mussulmans, that they repeatedly offered to restore Palestine, in order to save the rest of their dominions. John of Brienne and many of the other chiefs were of opinion that the offer should be accepted; but the strong opposition of several influential persons, who, under the impression that the moment had come in which the Saracen power was to be overthrown, displayed more valor than prudence, caused it to be altogether rejected.

The army was therefore commanded to advance towards Cairo, the capital of Egypt. A few days march brought the Christians to a spot where the Nile was to be crossed, but they were greatly disappointed at seeing the whole plain on the other side occupied by an incredible multitude of soldiers, whom the Sultan Meledin (Malek Kamel) had assembled, to oppose the progress of his enemy. There was not a sufficient number of vessels to attempt the passage in presence of such a force, with any probable hope of success. Provisions, too, began to be scarce among the crusaders; and to complete their misfortune, the rise and inundation of the Nile reduced them to the necessity of retracing their steps towards Damietta.

The signal for the retreat was given; but the exhausted troops, incessantly pursued by the Mussulman cavalry, lost thousands of their number, and the survivors were exposed to imminent danger. It was a fortunate circumstance that the victorious sultan possessed a generous soul. Moved with compassion at the misfortunes of the Christians, and seeing them no longer able to weaken his power, he afforded them the means of returning in safety, on condition that they would surrender Damietta, and evacuate all Egypt. These conditions were indeed very different from those which he had proposed a few weeks before; but the respective situations of both armies were now completely changed. The treaty met with a speedy acceptance and execution; and the Christians, leaving the Egyptian shores, returned by sea to Ptolemais, where their arrival produced as much grief and consternation as the news of their first success had produced hope and joy (A. D. 1221).

Some years after, the famous Frederic II, emperor of Germany, arrived in Palestine, at the head of new bands of crusaders. He obtained, by a treaty, from the Sultan of Egypt, the restitution of Jerusalem; but this he purchased by terms so disgraceful, and moreover took so little precaution to defend the Holy City, that it was soon retaken by the infidels. The conduct of Frederic became a subject of reproach through all Christendom. He disregarded the complaints, returned to Europe, and there again indulged his vices and unruly passions to such a degree as to provoke more and more the indignation of his contemporaries, the censures of the Church, and the anger of heaven; so that the end of his career was as gloomy and miserable, as its beginning had been brilliant and prosperous.

Palestine was next visited by Theobaldus, king of Navarre, and by some other princes, who did nothing very remarkable. Finally, Richard, earl of Cornwall, and brother of the king of England, arrived with an army of English crusaders. This prince had sufficient courage and resolution to carry on the holy war with more vigor than had been displayed for many years; but he found the Christians of Syria divided into so many parties, that all he could do for them was to conclude a new treaty of peace with the Saracens (A. D. 1241). After his departure, a sudden invasion of fresh barbarians from Korazan laid waste the Holy Land; the Christian colonies met with repeated losses; and there now remained no hope of restoring their forlorn affairs, unless some powerful monarch would take the arduous task upon himself.

SEVENTH CRUSADE.—ST. LOUIS.—A. D. 1244—1254.

HENRY III and LOUIS IX were reigning at this time, the former in England, the latter in France. The beginning of Henry's reign had been quiet. This prince, being gentle, humane and religious, at first easily won the hearts of his subjects by the solemn sanction which he gave to the privileges contained in Magna Charta, and by the success of his arms against Leolin, prince of Wales. Afterwards, his want of energy, his prodigalities, the many extortions committed by some of his ministers; above all, the repeal of certain national privileges, and the preference given at court to foreigners, gradually rendered his government odious to the lords and to the people. A powerful confederacy was formed against the king by the barons, who only waited for a proper occasion to commence open hostilities; and, in the interim, the general discontent frequently manifested itself by the refusal of subsidies or 'grants of money' to the government. In such circumstances, it was plain that little or no assistance could be expected from England for the recovery of Jerusalem.

France, on the contrary, was at that time in a flourishing condition under Louis IX. This prince, who, according to the infidel Voltaire himself, carried the heroism of virtue as far as human nature could reach, had succeeded his father Louis VIII, in the year 1226, when only twelve years old. The regency was intrusted to his mother, Blanche of Castile, a virtuous and courageous princess, who, on one side, watched with the utmost care over his royal, and especially his Christian education;* and, on the other, knew how to repress by force of arms the attempts made by restless vassals to obtain an ascendency over her, and to increase their power at the expense of the crown. When Louis took the reins of government into his own hands, new wars disturbed his kingdom; and it again became necessary to check the insolence of the earl of La Marche, a vassal who was the more dangerous, in consequence of the support which he received from the king of England, his relative. Notwithstanding the great difficulty which Henry found in obtaining subsidies and raising troops, he at length succeeded in both these objects; and, crossing the sea, landed in Guyenne, where he saw himself at the head of a considerable force. Louis, without losing a moment of time, marched against him, completely defeated him near Taillebourg; and, on the following day, gained a new victory under the walls of Saintes. So much vigor terrified the rebellious count, who surrendered at discretion, and was pardoned. The English king, who had fled to Bordeaux, hastened likewise to conclude a treaty of peace, after which he returned to England, without having won a single laurel, to the great disappointment of his subjects (A. D. 1242).

Louis, having thus conquered both his domestic and foreign enemies, and freed himself from the danger of subsequent attacks, turned his thoughts to the affairs of the East. The deplorable condition of Palestine, and particularly of Jerusalem, under the Mussulman yoke, deeply afflicted his generous heart. On his unexpected recovery from a dangerous disease, he took the cross, (1244), and by his exhortations induced the principal dukes, counts and barons of his kingdom to imitate his example. When all necessary preparations were made, Louis intrusted the care of the government to his virtuous mother, and embarked, with nearly fifty thousand men, at Aigues Mortes, a sea port in the south of France (A. D. 1248).

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* "My son," she would often say to him, from his infancy, "God knows how dear you are to me; still, I should infinitely prefer to see you fall dead at my feet, than ever see you guilty of a mortal sin." These words, so worthy of a Christian mother, had such an effect on the young prince, that he is thought never to have lost his baptismal innocence.

The fleet reached the friendly harbors of the island of Cyprus towards the end of September, and spent there the whole winter. In the spring it sailed again for Egypt, which the king with his council had determined to attack first, as being the principal seat of the Mahometan power. The sultan, on his side, had taken all possible measures to prevent the fleet from landing; and when the crusaders arrived near Damietta, they saw the beach covered with a countless multitude of Saracen troops, who seemed to oppose a dense forest of swords and pikes to the assailants. This, however, was but a trifling obstacle to the impetuosity of the French; Louis himself did not wait till the vessel in which he was should reach the shore; but, sword in hand, threw himself into the sea followed by his valiant knights. The Saracens, struck with terror, were dispersed, leaving to the conquerors undisturbed possession, not only of the coast, but even of Damietta; measures were adopted to secure the important conquest; and, after a short sojourn in the city and its environs, the crusading host marched towards Cairo, the capital of Egypt.

The Mussulmans assembled their forces on the opposite side of a deep canal formed by the Nile, and prevented for one month the passage of the Christian army. At length, an Arabian peasant agreed, for a large sum of money, to point out a ford; the river was crossed, and the enemy, driven from their camp, would have again suffered an entire defeat, had the count of Artois, a brother of the king, known how to temper his valor with prudence. At the sight of the Saracens flying in all directions, this impetuous prince forgot the order which he had received, not to pursue the fugitives until the whole Christian army should arrive. Rushing forward with a body of fifteen hundred knights, he drove before him the Mussulman forces. In vain did the earl of Salisbury, with the grand masters of the Hospitallers and Templars, endeavor to cool his imprudent ardor; blinded by success, he still rushed on, and entered the city of Massoura with the fugitives, who at first imagined that they were pursued by the whole Christian army. They quickly recovered from their panic, and, perceiving the small number of their pursuers, shut the gates of the town, and united their efforts with those of the inhabitants to crush at once these brave but incautious men. A terrible fight took place in the streets of Massoura; during five hours the most prodigious display of courage was made by the two parties; but the Christians, besides being greatly inferior in force, began to be exhausted with weariness. At last, valor was overcome by numbers; almost all were killed; and the earl of Artois fell, together with his soldiers, on a heap of Saracens whom he had slain with his own hand.

Whilst the Moslems were fighting within the city, a tremendous battle was waged round the walls of the city and along the banks of the canal. Although the crusaders, and especially the king, fought with determined bravery, and twice repulsed the enemy, yet its consequences were fearfully fatal. The crusaders were now considerably reduced, and nearly all their horses had perished. Moreover, the dead bodies thrown into the Nile, infected its waters, and gave rise to a pestilence, which, in a very short time, changed the Christian camp into a vast hospital. In fine, the Saracen army having succeeded in preventing all communication between the crusaders and the city of Damietta whence they drew their provisions, famine added its ravages to those of the plague, and rendered the retreat from Massoura a necessary, though a difficult and perilous attempt. The king, by his superior courage and prudence, might perhaps have conducted the retreat with some success; but, as he made it his duty to visit the sick, as well as to repel the attacks of the enemy, he contracted the disease, and was reduced in a few days to a state of complete exhaustion. Being almost at the point of death, he suspended his march at a little town near the banks of the Nile, and there, notwithstanding the heroic bravery of his knights, was taken prisoner with his surviving brothers and the sad remnant of his troops (A. D. 1250).

Louis displayed in his prison the firmness, magnanimity and intrepidity which he had always evinced on the throne and at the head of armies. The very barbarians into whose hands he had fallen, were compelled to admire his noble conduct and undaunted courage; and their emirs more than once acknowledged that he was the bravest Christian they had ever seen. At length, a treaty was concluded, in virtue of which, Louis, by restoring Damietta, recovered his liberty, and gave considerable sums of money for the ransom of the other captives. He then sailed for Palestine, where, after his happy arrival at Ptolemais, he spent four years in promoting the cause of religion, securing, as well as he was able, the welfare of the Christian colonies, and repairing the fortifications of the towns which were yet in their power. The intelligence which a message from Paris gave him of the death of his mother Blanche, induced him to return. He was received in France with universal joy; and he himself, notwithstanding the many sorrows which afflicted his soul, experienced the pleasure of a tender father just restored to his children, and had, moreover, the satisfaction to find his kingdom in the same peaceful and prosperous condition in which he had left it six years before.

ST. LOUIS CONTINUED.—CIVIL WAR IN ENGLAND.

A. D. 1254—1268.

Louis, after his return from Palestine, applied more than ever to promote the happiness of his people by measures of justice, statutes well adapted to the preservation of public order, institutions of charity, and the assiduous care which he took to have his laws faithfully executed. So remarkable and so well known was his equity, that not only his subjects, but even foreigners, referred to him with perfect confidence the decision of their quarrels. This particularly appeared on the following occasion.

At that time, the English barons were highly incensed against their king, Henry III, who had disregarded their former complaints, respecting the defects of his government. In a great assembly held at Oxford (A. D. 1258), they not only demanded the execution of the Grand-Charter, but also endeavored to impose on the monarch new conditions tending evidently to weaken his power; conditions which he of course rejected. The whole subject of dispute was referred to the arbitration of Louis. After mature discussion, the French king pronounced his decision; he annulled the late decrees of Oxford, as opposed to the just authority of the crown, and confirmed the national privileges contained in Magna-Charta (A. D. 1264).

This decision, however equitable, displeased the party of the barons. Far from abiding by it, according to their previous promise, they openly raised the standard of insurrection; and, under the command of the earl of Leicester, marched with a numerous army against the royal troops who were commanded by the king in person and his eldest son Edward. A battle was fought near the town of Lewes, the issue of which proved as fatal, as the beginning had been favorable, to the royal cause. Prince Edward easily routed the enemy's wing opposed to him; but, as frequently happens on such occasions, instead of improving his advantage by falling on the rear of the confederates, he incautiously pursued the fugitives, and thus left the centre of his own army undefended. The earl of Leicester seized the opportunity, and, making a sudden and vigorous attack, gained so complete a victory, that the king himself fell into his power.

The victorious count conveyed his prisoner from town to town; and, leaving him the name, assumed to himself all the authority of a sovereign. His daring ambition soon provoked discontent and hatred; the yoke which Leicester laid upon the nation appeared too heavy; and, at the end of one year, the restoration of Henry was almost universally desired. Under these circumstances, Prince Edward easily succeeded in assembling new troops, marched against the usurper, and, more successful than before, defeated and slew him in the sanguinary battle of Evesham (A. D. 1265). Not content with this result, he continued to harass the confederates, until he gave the deadly blow to their league by the reduction of the island of Ely, whither its last partisans had retired. Thus was the sceptre again placed, more securely than ever, in the hands of Henry; and England, after so many disturbances, began to enjoy profound peace, which permitted Edward to share in the second crusade of St. Louis—the eighth and last of the crusades.

EIGHTH AND LAST CRUSADE.—A. D. 1268—1272.

The French monarch had not been so dispirited by the ill-success of his first expedition, as to renounce his project of waging war against the Saracens for the defence of the Christian colonies in the East; he was, on the contrary, urged to the execution of his design by the melancholy news from Syria. The Moslems there were obstinately bent on depriving the Franks of their last possessions, and exercised frightful cruelties against those whom they made prisoners, and who refused to embrace Mahometanism. But lately, Antioch had fallen into the hands of Bendocdar, the sultan of Egypt, and one hundred thousand inhabitants had been led away captive. Louis once more expressed his determination to go beyond the sea for the purpose of delivering Palestine from its oppressors; and many princes, lords, knights, and other warriors, again flocked to his standard. Having provided for the security of his kingdom during his absence, he embarked with sixty thousand chosen troops in the beginning of July (1270), and landed at Tunis in Africa, near the ruins of Carthage.

The chief reason which prompted St. Louis to give this direction to the crusade, was that the king of Tunis had given hopes of his becoming a convert to the true faith, if, in taking so important a step, he could be protected from the displeasure of his subjects. This conversion, were it to take place, seemed likely to facilitate the recovery of the Holy Land, by depriving the Egyptian sultan of his most powerful ally. But these hopes quickly vanished. When the Christian host arrived at Tunis, the Mussulman prince, far from asking for instruction and baptism, prepared to make resistance, and in every thing openly acted as an enemy. Louis, perceiving that the town had strong fortifications, and was defended by a numerous garrison, did not think proper to commence the attack before the arrival of reinforcements daily expected from Sicily. In the interim, he contented himself with protecting his camp by intrenchments and ditches, and repelling the frequent skirmishes of the Moors.

The measures taken by the king against a foreign foe were perfectly successful; but all his precaution did not suffice to avert the attacks of another sort of enemies. Malignant fevers and dysenteries, caused by bad water and the heat of the climate, began to rage throughout the camp with such violence, that nearly half of the army was carried off in a few days. The king himself was attacked by the disease, and saw the end of his life rapidly approaching. Never did he appear greater than at this critical juncture. Although he suffered acute pains, he continued to give his orders, and to console every one around him, with his usual tranquillity and presence of mind. At last, his constitution yielded to the violence of the malady; having given his last instruction and blessing to his son Philip, and received the last sacraments of the Church with the most edifying piety, raising his eyes towards heaven, he calmly expired, whilst pronouncing those words of the Royal Prophet: *I will come into thy house; I will worship towards thy holy temple* (Psalm v. 8). He had lived fifty-six years, and reigned forty-four.

In St. Louis, there was a rare combination of all desirable, and even of apparently opposite qualities, which made him not only superior to his age, but confessedly one of the most extraördinary men that ever wore a crown. His love of religious exercises was never an obstacle to the fulfilment of his public duties. His uncommon piety, simplicity of manners, and meekness in private life, never prevented him from being a faithful dispenser of justice, a wise legislator, an intrepid warrior, and a dignified monarch. Not only France, but all Europe, and also, Popes, kings and emperors, entertained for him the highest respect. He won the admiration even of that Asiatic prince, called *Le vieux de la montagne*, from whom the other crowned heads had so much to fear for their lives; and of those terrible Mamelukes of Egypt whose prisoner he was, and who once, as is commonly believed, deliberated whether they should appoint him their sovereign. In a word, Louis IX, by practising every royal, military, and Christian virtue in an eminent degree, was at the same time a great king, a great hero, and a great saint. Innumerable witnesses bore testimony to his unblemished morals and piety; and no later than the year 1297, the 27th after his death, he was solemnly canonized by Pope Boniface VIII.*

His decease caused inexpressible grief among the soldiers. Grief however did not abate their courage; and the Moslems, especially after the arrival of the Sicilians, were so frequently and so signally defeated, that they were compelled to sue for peace, which was granted on conditions both honorable and advantageous to the Christians, most of whom then reembarked for Europe. A few only, having at their head the English prince Edward, sailed for Palestine, for the purpose of carrying on the sacred expedition. This they did during part of the year 1271; but their small number prevented them from undertaking any thing of consequence; and Edward, after having been exposed both to sickness and to the dagger of an assassin, availed himself of the conclusion of a truce with the Saracens, to return to England, where he succeeded his father Henry III, who had died during his absence.

Thus terminated the eighth and last crusade, in 1272. Two years after, Pope Gregory X, who had witnessed with his own eyes the sorrows of Palestine, endeavored to promote a new expedition in its favor; but his premature death, together with a variety of other obstacles, prevented the execution of that design. Hence every thing now tended to the utter expulsion of the Franks from Syria, and the more so, as they incessantly provoked the justice of God by quarrels among themselves and by the depravity of their lives. Many of the places which they had hitherto preserved, were successively and rapidly conquered by the sultan Bendocdar and his successors. Ptolemais, then the capital of the Christian colonies, saw the storm approaching its walls, and could not avert it; in the beginning of April (1291), it was invested on the land side by sixty thousand horse and one hundred and sixty thousand infantry, who were commanded by the sultan Chalil in person, and supplied with three hundred enormous machines destined to batter and overthrow the ramparts. The city, although populous, did not contain more than twenty thousand effective men, who were soon reduced to twelve thousand. Still, they at first offered, at every point, a tremendous and successful resistance, and during six weeks repelled all the attacks of their numberless foes, producing such slaughter among them, that in one of those furious assaults, seven Moslems were said to have fallen for one Christian. But the losses of the Saracens could be easily repaired, whilst those of the besieged were irreparable, their numbers diminishing every day, until there were but one thousand warriors left. In this frightful distress, even the heroic intrepidity of the Knights Hospitallers and Templars could uphold only a few hours longer the tottering fortune of Acre; they resisted almost to the last; and it was only when the city had lost its defenders, that it was carried by storm on the eighteenth of May of the same year 1291.

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* "Ce fut un beau spectacle que celui de l'instruction canonique dans laquelle le père commun des fidèles interrogea les contemporains de Louis IX sur les vertus de sa vie et les bienfaits de son règne. Des Français de toutes les classes vinrent attester sur l'Évangile que le monarque dont ils pleuraient la mort était digne de toutes les récompenses du ciel. Parmi eux on remarquait les vieux compagnons d'armes de Louis, qui avaient partagé ses fers en Égypte, qui l'avaient vu mourant sur la cendre devant Tunis. L'Europe entière confirma leur religieux témoignage, et répéta ces paroles du chef de l'église: *Maison de France, réjouis-toi d'avoir donné au monde un si grand prince; réjouis-toi, peuple de France, d'avoir eu un si bon roi!*"—Michaut, *Histoire des Croisades, vol.* v. *p.* 114-115.

The merciless conquerors destroyed every thing with fire and sword in that unfortunate city, slaughtering even a multitude of harmless prisoners who had implored their compassion. The town was utterly devastated. Of the inhabitants who had time to make their escape by sea, some fled to the island of Cyprus, others landed on the shores of Italy, where they wandered from place to place, begging their bread, and relating, with tears, the sad story of the fate of the Christians in the East.

REMARKS ON THE CRUSADES.

The ill success of the last crusades entirely extinguished that spirit of zeal for the deliverance of Jerusalem, which had animated the first crusaders. Succeeding attempts to renew those expeditions proved fruitless; and the wars carried on in subsequent centuries between the Christians and Turks, were like those which powerful neighboring and rival nations wage against each other.

Like other transactions of the middle ages, the crusades have been, for very many modern writers, an object of scorn, and a favorite topic for abusive and insulting language. In the opinion of these men, the crusades were prompted by unjust and absurd motives; were carried on without judgment; and were disastrous in their consequences. It is our duty here to examine these charges, and see whether they rest on a solid foundation.

With regard to the motives which prompted the nations of Europe to undertake the crusades, they were certainly as just and reasonable as any that ever occasioned wars among men. It was for the purpose of putting a stop to the barbarous oppression to which both the Latin pilgrims and the eastern Christians were exposed, that our European ancestors every where took up arms, and rushed to the field, urged by motives of honor, humanity and religion. Their ardor and readiness to enlist in this generous enterprise, was moreover powerfully excited by the suppliant entreaties of the Greek emperor Alexius, who called for assistance against the same barbarians then in possession of Jerusalem. The desire of rescuing the holy sepulchre from the oppressive yoke of those infidels, may have been the most usual feeling that actuated many of the crusaders, but surely it was not the only object of the crusades; and this desire, very just in itself, as it merely tended to attack recent and cruel usurpers, concealed a still more important design, namely, that of saving the countries of Europe itself from the invasion with which they were threatened.

Indeed, what was not to be feared from those Mussulman hordes, who had already made such progress, and seemed to conquer for no other end than to destroy christianity and civilization! How alarming was their restless and warlike spirit, always inflamed and fostered by fanaticism and the desire of pillage! Were our forefathers then patiently to wait for the yoke of servitude to be laid upon them? Did it become the Christian nations to suffer themselves to be successively subdued and oppressed, rather than oppose a powerful barrier to the progress of their common enemy? We admire and praise Annibal for having crossed seas and rivers and mountains, that he might carry war into the centre of Italy, and conquer the Romans upon the very territory of Rome—and shall we blame the European princes for having done the like in much more difficult and trying circumstances, by going to attack the Turks and the Saracens in the very provinces of Asia, in the very bulwark of their power? In fine, was it not infinitely better for the Latin lords to turn against those implacable foes the weapons which, especially during those turbulent ages of the feudal system, they had so often used to attack the property and lives of one another?

Now, who can doubt that these considerations were perfectly known to the leaders of the Christian states; since, from the very beginning of the first crusade, Pope Urban II, in the Council of Clermont, expressly mentioned them, and inculcated them in a strain of animated eloquence: "Warriors, who listen to me," said he, "rejoice; the time has come for you to show your courage in the best of causes; the time has come for you to expiate, by your generous exertions in a lawful war, the many acts of violence and injustice which you have committed even during the time of peace. After being so long the terror of your own countrymen and fellow-Christians, go now, and, taking the sword of the Maccabees, protect the people of God and defend your persecuted brethren against the implacable enemies of the Christian name........Mussulman impiety has overspread the fairest regions of Asia; Ephesus, Nice, Antioch, have become Mahometan cities; the barbarous hordes of the Turks have planted their colors on the very shores of the Hellespont, whence they threaten war to all the states of Christendom. Unless you oppose a mighty barrier to their triumphant course, how can Europe be saved from invasion? how can the storm be averted which has so long threatened to burst upon our countries?"*

Such were the motives, such the objects of the crusades; can any be conceived more pure, more noble than these? and, consequently, were not the crusades as just as any other wars of that or any period? They cost, it is true, the lives of nearly two millions of crusaders; but the loss, although lamentable in itself, was far from being as extraordinary and dreadful as might at first sight appear. 1°. It was not greater than that occasioned by wars much less important and justifiable, and of much shorter duration. The conquests of Genghis-Kan alone destroyed five or six, some say eighteen millions of individuals.—The war for the succession of Spain, which did not last more than twelve years (1701—1713), carried off two millions of persons.—Napoleon Bonaparte, in the course of twenty years (1795—1815), is supposed to have occasioned the death of no fewer than seven or eight millions of men, mostly to gratify his ambition and his desire of military fame; yet, this man is admired and extolled as the greatest hero of modern times, and the promoters and leaders of the crusades, whose views were so upright, so grand, and so generous, are bitterly and mercilessly censured! 2°. The number of those who perished in consequence of the holy wars, ought rather to appear comparatively small, if we consider that it must be divided between almost all the nations of Europe, and that, too, during the long interval of nearly two hundred years. 3°. The loss of so many individuals was compensated by the invaluable benefits which resulted from the crusades, and which will be mentioned in the course of these remarks. Let a single observation suffice here: two millions of Christians may have perished in those distant expeditions; but, in thus perishing, they saved European civilization, secured the independence of Christian states, and laid the foundation of the happiness of future generations; do they deserve censure for all this? and does it become those who now enjoy the benefits resulting from their generous devotedness, to complain of their conduct?

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* From contemporary authors, *apud* Michaut, *vol.* I, *p.* 104 *and* 106.

Moreover, if our European ancestors were not allowed to feel a deep concern in the most sacred monuments of their faith, and to defend the cause of God against savage barbarians; if they had no right to assist and relieve a cruelly oppressed and injured people, and to deliver them and their country from cruel usurpers; if they committed an injustice in repelling from defenceless frontiers a restless and rapacious foe, whose object was pillage, bloodshed and destruction—then, indeed, we might with truth assert that they were awfully mistaken in thus laying down their lives for their religion, their country, and their fellow-men; and that we alone, with our degenerate sentiments, our contracted views of pecuniary speculations and self-interest, are wise, enlightened and praiseworthy! But who would make the odious assertion?—who, on the contrary, is so insensible to all that is noble, grand and generous in human actions, as to withhold from the religious and social heroism which prompted our forefathers to undertake the crusades, the merited homage of sincere admiration.

Let us now view the manner in which these expeditions were conducted. It is true that, nothwithstanding the wise regulations repeatedly enacted by Popes and princes, many disorders and excesses were committed by the crusaders; but this is no reason to impeach the lawfulness and justice of the crusades themselves, since similar disorders and excesses have occurred in other wars, even the most just and necessary. This unfortunate circumstance then is not the fault of the military enterprise itself, but of the individuals who have a share in it; and merely proves that man is always accompanied by his passions, and that there is no object, how good and excellent soever, that may not be abused, and become, through his instrumentality, an occasion of evil.

Moreover, if many of those who called themselves the soldiers of the cross, committed depredations, cruelties and other excesses, how many also, especially among the leaders, acted with a moderation and dignity worthy of the cause which they defended! How often, whilst contending with the treachery of the Greeks or the ferocity of the Turks, did they content themselves with displaying a magnanimous courage, and a chivalric adherence to their promises! How many specimens they exhibited of energetic resolution, generous feelings, invincible patience and noble fortitude! The history of the crusades presents many glorious feats of arms and acts of virtue, which will, notwithstanding the prejudices of the day, render it for ever the most interesting portion of the history of the middle ages.

As to the result of these grand and noble expeditions, there were numerous obstacles to their full success with regard to the conquest and lasting possession of Palestine, viz. the distance of countries; the difference of climates; the excessive heat and other inconveniences of the weather; the scarcity or bad quality of provisions, which occasioned malignant fevers, dysenteries and pestilential diseases; the mixture and jealousy of different nations; the opposite views and interests of their leaders; etc. etc. Still, although the crusades did not fully attain their immediate object, the recovery and preservation of the Holy Land, great and invaluable were the advantages which they otherwise produced.

The first was, as we have already observed, the remarkable diminution of the power of the Saracens and the Seljukian Turks, who were thus prevented from penetrating into the heart of Christendom.

The second advantage which had also been expressly intended and expected, was the delivery of Europe from a multitude of petty princes and restless vassals, always quarrelling with their sovereigns or among themselves, and who were induced to turn against the barbarians of Asia the weapons which they had so often used against one another. The oppressions, and other evil consequences of the feudal system gradually disappeared; travelling became easier and more secure; towns and boroughs obtained their enfranchisement; etc.

In the third place, the necessity of transporting the crusading armies to Egypt and Palestine, naturally improved the art of navigation. The mariner's compass, invented some time before, began to be used during the seventh crusade, and prepared the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, and the still more important discovery of America.

Fourthly—Commerce, the profits of which were undoubtedly a powerful motive for some of the crusaders, was also vastly enlarged by the constant intercourse of the European nations with their colonies in Asia. Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and other maritime towns, rapidly increased in wealth, power and glory. New and valuable articles were imported from the East into the West, and, succeeding well upon this new soil, formed several important branches of trade, such as the sugar-cane and its produce, with which the first crusaders became acquainted in 1099; silk, which commenced to be manufactured in Italy towards 1209; many useful medicaments; etc.

In fine, the daily communications of our ancestors with

Greece and Syria, which the crusades necessarily occasioned, were one of the most powerful helps towards the complete revival of literature, arts and sciences. Hence we see that the principal universities of Europe were founded in the twelfth or in the thirteenth century, during or immediately after the time of the crusades: v. g. those of Padua and Paris about the year 1180;—that of Naples, in 1230;—Vienna, in 1238;—Salamanca, in 1240;—Cambridge, in 1280;—Lisbon, in 1290; etc. Decrees were issued by different Popes to establish in Rome, Oxford, Paris, Bologna and Salamanca, classes and masters of Hebrew, Arabic and Chaldaic; the masters being moreover bound to translate into Latin the best works originally written in these languages. From that time also, geography began to be much better known; chemistry, or rather alchymy, opened its laboratories; and, besides a multitude of eminent scholars and divines, the age of the crusades produced many excellent historians, William of Tyre, Roger Hoveden, Joinville, and others, whose writings we still admire.*

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* The truth of these remarks has not escaped the learned authors of the *English Universal History.* "The result of the crusades," they say, "although fatal to some particular nations, was extremely advantageous to christendom at large; they stopped the progress of the Mahometan power, at the time of its greatest excesses; they taught the princes of Europe the value of a navy; and, by making them better acquainted with the situation, productions and political state of the vast countries of Asia, they opened the way for those discoveries and conquests which have been in after times an inexhaustible source of gain. These advantages, it is true, were not reaped but at a long interval after the crusades, and this is the reason why so few authors have viewed them under a proper aspect; but the fact itself is not less evidently demonstrated. Even, at the remote period when those expeditions took place, a Venetian (Sanudo, in a work entitled: *Secreta fidelium Crucis)* wrote a learned and judicious treatise on this subject, which, though it had then little effect, furnishes us at least with an incontestable proof that these happy consequences of the crusades had been foreseen long before they happened and could be generally understood." *Univ. Hist. vol.* LV, *p.* 279. See also *Histoire du Bas Empire,* (A. M. SS. C. G., Paris, 1838), *vol.* I, *p.* 434—440;—Bérault-Bercastel, *Discours sur le troisième âge de l'Eglise;*—Bergier, *Diction. Théolog.*, art. *Croisades;*—Nonnote, *Erreurs de Voltaire, vol.* I, *ch.* XVIII.

Such were the *immense* and *lasting* ADVANTAGES produced by those expeditions against which so much spleen has been vented within the three last centuries; advantages far greater than the *partial* and *transitory* EVILS to which the same enterprises accidentally gave occasion, and well calculated to remove from the minds of the most prejudiced any impression unfavorable to the crusades.

PART VI.

FROM THE END OF THE CRUSADES (A. D. 1272), TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA (A. D. 1492).

ENGLAND, WALES, AND SCOTLAND, UNDER KINGS EDWARD I AND II—A. D. 1273—1314.

Prince Edward, after his return from Palestine, ascended without opposition the throne of his ancestors, and occupied it, during thirty-four years, with great, though not unblemished glory. His government was vigorous, but frequently despotic; his exploits were remarkable, but often accompanied with an excessive rigor bordering on cruelty; on the whole, Edward I deserved the reputation of an able rather than of a good monarch. Naturally ambitious, he resolved to restore to the English crown, by his conquests, its former dignity, which had been considerably diminished by the misfortunes and weakness of the two last kings; and he aspired to concentrate in himself the sovereignty of the whole island of Great Britain; nor was he entirely disappointed in his endeavors.

Great Britain, not including Ireland, contained three separate states, viz. the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, and the principality of Wales. This last was at that time under the sway of Llewellyn, a prince who had inherited from his father a deep hatred against the English, and in preceding wars had conquered them in many battles. Contrary to the practice of several of his predecessors, he sternly refused, at the accession of Edward, to do him homage for his dominions. Edward, thus provoked, seized the opportunity offered him to attack the Welsh; and, declaring open war, invaded their country with superior forces. It was in vain that Llewellyn took refuge among the inaccessible mountains which had, for many ages, defended his ancestors against all the attempts of Roman and Saxon conquerors; Edward, not less active than vigilant, penetrated into the very heart of the country, and prepared to force the Welsh in their last retreats. Llewellyn, seeing himself destitute of all resources, consented to make his submission, which however did not last long; he revolted once more, but was slain in a decisive engagement near the river Wye, and with him expired the independence of Wales (A. D. 1283). This principality was thenceforth united to the English crown, and given, as a portion, to the eldest sons of the English monarchs.

Shortly after the subjugation of Wales, the affairs of Scotland engaged Edward's attention, and gave him hopes of adding that kingdom also to his dominions. There were several competitors for the crown; the English monarch, to whom the controversy was referred (A. D. 1290), acted first as mediator; but, as new difficulties daily arose among the Scottish lords, he soon began to act the part of a conqueror. Yet, notwithstanding his great exertions and many victories, the conquest never was complete nor secure. During the remainder of his life, the Scots frequently shook off the yoke, and, after his death, which happened in 1307, entirely recovered their national freedom, under the weak reign of his son Edward II. In this protracted war, the most famous champions of Scottish liberty, were William Wallace, who for some time proved a match for all the efforts of the English; and Robert Bruce, who fought the celebrated battle of Bannock-Burn against King Edward II, and, by a signal victory, secured the independence of Scotland (A. D. 1314).

GERMANY UNDER THE EMPEROR RODOLPH OF HAPSBURG.—COMMENCEMENT OF THE HELVETIAN CONFEDERATION.—A. D. 1273—1315.

Ever since the death of Frederic II in 1250, Germany had been in a state of confusion and disorder. The people were oppressed; robberies, and other excesses were daily committed with impunity; public and private wars continued without interruption. In this deplorable crisis, a man of uncommon prudence, courage and firmness, was indispenably required, to check so many evils; such a man was Rodolph, count of Hapsburg, from whom sprung the illustrious family of Austria. Being chosen emperor in the year 1273, by the unanimous votes of the German princes, he immediately directed all his efforts to the restoration of order and tranquillity. Success attended his exertions; and Germany, recovering from her calamities, enjoyed under him a peace to which she had long been a stranger.

Still, it was not in the power of Rodolph to bring back the empire to its former extent and splendor. During the interregnum that preceded his reign, the state had been stripped of important provinces, two of which, Sicily and Naples, being first subdued and possessed by the French under Charles of Anjou, the brother of St. Louis, successively passed into the hands of the Arragonian kings, the former in 1282, by the slaughter of the French, an event well known under the name of *The Sicilian Vespers*, and the latter by conquest, at a subsequent period. Another revolution took place under Albert, the son of Rodolphus, in 1308, when Switzerland began to form itself into an independent republic.

Until now, Switzerland, formerly called Helvetia, had been a portion of the German empire. Its inhabitants, great lovers of their country and of liberty, considered themselves rather under the protection than under the authority of the emperor, and valued their privileges more than life itself. The emperor Albert had the imprudence to provoke their indignation, by summoning them to become vassals to him as duke of Austria; and excited their resentment, by appointing as governors over the Helvetian districts, three men commonly represented as capable of the most tyrannical excesses. To the summons the spirited natives returned a peremptory refusal, and to the oppression which, it is said, soon began to weigh heavy upon them, they prepared to oppose an undaunted resistance, under the direction of the famous William Tell and some others of their countrymen remarkable for their eminently independent and intrepid character. Many historians add that William Tell had been goaded on to vengeance, by the tyrannical command of one of the three governors to shoot an apple from the head of his own son at the distance of a hundred feet; which he did without hurting a hair of the youth. But, whatever may be said of this circumstance, which is by others called in question, and which really wears a romantic appearance, the conspiracy of the Helvetians against a foreign domination was vigorously conducted. They took and destroyed the castles which had been the seat of tyranny, and either put their oppressors to death, or obliged them with their satellites to evacuate the country.

All hope of reconciliation between the emperor and the Helvetians was now destroyed. At the first intelligence of the insurrection, Albert prepared to check it by marching in person against those whom he called rebels; but he was murdered at that very time, on the banks of the river Reuss. The districts of Uri, Underwalden, and Schweitz, availed themselves of the disturbances which followed his death to strengthen their coalition. It was not long, however, before they saw themselves attacked by a formidable army of Austrians under the command of Duke Leopold, a son of the Emperor Albert. With full confidence of victory, this prince ventured to penetrate into the heart of Switzerland, through a narrow defile called Morgarten; while thirteen hundred men of the district of Schweitz took upon themselves the charge of defending it against that multitude of Germans, as formerly three hundred Spartans attempted to stop the Persians in the straits of Thermopylæ. The Helvetians posted themselves on the summits of the surrounding mountains, and, as soon as the Austrians had entered that narrow path, cast upon them enormous fragments of rocks, which destroyed the cavalry and threw the infantry in disorder; then, rushing down with resistless fury, they cut nearly all the enemy to pieces, whilst they themselves lost only fourteen men.

A little before the battle, fifty men, who had been lately banished for misconduct, came and offered to atone for their former delinquencies by shedding their blood in defence of their country. However useful their assistance might be to the small army of the Helvetians, it was looked upon as disgraceful, and consequently rejected. No refusal, indeed, could be more mortifying nor more disparaging than this to the exiles; but patriotism made them superior to every consideration. When the fight commenced in the valley of Morgarten, this little band attacked the Austrians with undaunted valor, spread terror and destruction wherever they went, and greatly contributed to the victory of their countrymen. What they had just done, inspired them with greater confidence than before; after the battle, they did not hesitate to make their appearance in the camp of the conquerors, and were received by them with every possible mark of gratitude and exultation.

The battle of Morgarten was the most fatal blow given to the Austrian power in Helvetia, whose inhabitants could now justly hope that their liberty was secure. From that time they formed themselves into a regular confederacy founded on a few plain and simple principles. As the struggle for independence had taken place particularly in the territory of *Schweitz*, and the victory had been gained chiefly by the exertions of the natives, the other districts adopted that name for themselves. At first, they were only three in number; but, in the course of time, the neighboring districts and towns joined the confederacy, and by this union formed the nation of the Swiss, which has been ever since, if not one of the most powerful and influential, at least one of the most courageous and magnanimous nations in Europe.

PROSECUTION AND ABOLITION OF THE KNIGHTS TEMPLARS.—A. D. 1307—1312.

The knights Templars, whose institution we mentioned before, had now been in existence for nearly two hundred years. During that time, their devotedness to the cause of Christendom, their heroic valor and exploits against the Saracens, had acquired for their order an extraordinary reputation and immense riches. But wealth and power generated among them a spirit of arrogance and independence, which exasperated both the civil and ecclesiastical authorities. They became proud, intemperate, insolent, and were daily falling into ill repute, when some of their discontented members gave notice to the French king, Philip the Fair, of still more shocking and heinous crimes committed in the order.

The charges were of such a nature, that they at first served only to excite indignation against their authors. It was however thought advisable to make new inquiries, the result of which induced Philip to have all the templars of his kingdom arrested on the same day, the thirteenth of October 1307. A committee which he appointed in Paris, tried one hundred and forty knights, all of whom, except three, acknowledged the justice of the accusation under which they lay; and not only they, but even the grand-master and chief commanders of the Templars twice confirmed the same by their own free and express acknowledgment. In fine, seventy-two others, were examined at Poitiers, and all confessed themselves guilty of most of the crimes laid to their charge.

As the persons thus accused belonged to an order which was religious as well as military, Pope Clement V took cognizance of the affair, and conducted it with the most assiduous attention and scrupulous impartiality. Struck at the unanimity which existed in the accusations, testimonies and free avowals of so many persons, several of whom he himself had examined, he wrote to all the Christian princes in Europe, that they also might take proper measures against the evil. Every where, the Templars were put under arrest, and courts of inquiry were appointed by both papal and royal authority, to examine the accusations brought against them. The prisoners were strictly interrogated, chiefly with regard to the charges of profligacy, apostacy and idolatry. Several of them pleaded guilty, and threw themselves on the clemency of their judges; while many others declared themselves innocent, and could not be convicted of any crime.

It appears, in fact, that the order was not equally corrupt in all places; which fact accounts for the different treatment which its members received in different countries. Many were acquitted, particularly in Germany and Spain; others were condemned to perpetual or temporary confinement; others, in fine, who were convicted of enormous crimes, and, instead of repenting, obstinately retracted their previous free avowal of their guilt, were delivered to the secular power, to be punished according to the rigor of the law. Fifty-nine were burned at the stake in Paris, nine at Senlis, and several in the south of France.

As for the grand-master, James of Molay, and the chief commanders, who were kept with him in safe custody at Paris, the Pope had reserved to himself the decision of their fate. It was his wish that they should be punished only by confinement, on condition that they would repeat, in presence of the people, their former acknowledgment of their guilt. Two of them obeyed and were treated with mildness; but James of Molay and another Templar, contrary to public expectation, suddenly exclaimed that their order was innocent and had been calumniated. The papal legates, greatly astonished and perplexed, sent them back to their place of confinement, and deliberated at leisure on the strange incident. But the king, highly incensed at the unaccountable conduct of the knights, would not wait any longer. He directly took the advice of his lay-counsellors, and, on the evening of the same day, caused the two prisoners to be transported to a small island formed by the river Seine, and there to be thrown into the flames. The grand-master displayed, in that awful moment, his characteristic courage, which made a deep impression on the spectators. He is even reported to have, a short time before expiring, summoned the Pope to appear within forty days, and King Philip within the space of one year, before the tribunal of their common and sovereign Judge. But this story seems devoid of proof, being omitted by all the historians of that time, and contradicted by the best critics of more recent date, particularly by Mariana,* F. Brumoy,† Natalis Alexander,‡ etc.

As to the order itself, whether it should be abolished or maintained, this was a question to be decided by the Pope. For this purpose, and for other important affairs, he convoked a general council to be held at Vienne in France, towards the close of the year 1311. The inquiries about the Templars, and their different trials having now occupied nearly five years, the whole result was laid before the Pontiff, who communicated it to the prelates of the assembly. That many individuals had been guilty of enormous crimes, could not be doubted; but there was not equal evidence to implicate the whole order; it was clear, however, that it had greatly degenerated from its original institution, and that far from being of any utility, it would rather prove an object of scandal to the Church. All these considerations being duly weighed for several months, Clement V came to the conclusion that the order of the knights Templars could no longer be tolerated with any sort of propriety. Accordingly, on the third of April 1312, he published, in presence and with the approbation of the council, a bull suppressing the institute, not by way of a judicial sentence, but as a measure of prudence and expediency; and, in order that the riches and properties of the Templars might be still preserved for the purposes to which they had been originally destined, they were transferred to the knights Hospitallers of St. John, who, more faithful to the primitive rules of their noble vocation, were still fighting the battles of Christendom against the infidels, from whose hands they had just rescued the island of Rhodes. From this general grant were excepted the estates lying within the kingdoms of Arragon, Castile and Portugal: these were reserved for the defence of those countries against the Moors, who still possessed a considerable part of the Spanish Peninsula.*

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* *De Rebus Hispaniæ, lib.* XV. *c.* XI.

† *Hist. de l'Egl. Gallicane, vol.* XII, *b.* XXXVI, *ad ann.* 1312.

‡ In *Hist. Eccles. Sæc.* XIV. *Dissert.* X. *Quæst.* II. *Art.* I. *No.* XIX.

PROGRESS OF THE CHRISTIANS OF SPAIN, AND SIGNAL VICTORIES OVER THE MOORS.—A. D. 1312—1344.

The Christians of Spain were gaining ground almost continually on their enemies; but the Moorish nation, by receiving assistance and supplies from their African brethren, seemed to be a kind of hydra, whose heads re-appeared as fast as they were cut off, and nearly as dangerous as before; their frequent defeats appeared to rouse them to new exertions. Besides these ordinary efforts, extraordinary ones were made from time to time, to avenge and repair all their losses at once. Such was the intended invasion of all Christian Spain, a plan which they endeavored to execute in 1340, under the conduct of Alboacen, king of

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* The affair of the knights Templars being very differently represented by various modern authors, we have been careful to consult and follow guides who, from their learning and impartiality, could not lead us astray; and above all, the original documents themselves, so well calculated to repel unjust attacks, and correct inaccurate ideas on this important subject.—See Note A.

Morocco, a prince much renowned for his exploits and conquests among the African tribes. His forces, gathered from every part of Africa, consisted of four hundred thousand infantry, and seventy thousand cavalry, with three hundred and twenty large vessels and galleys to transport them from one shore to the other. Five months were employed in effecting the passage.

At the approach of that immense multitude of Moslems, who were joined by a hundred thousand more from the kingdom of Granada, not only Spain but all Christendom trembled. Never had so numerous an army been raised by any Mahometan prince, not even by those ancient Caliphs whose power extended over the fairest portions of Europe, Asia and Africa. The general consternation was increased by the news that the two admirals of Castile and Arragon had been defeated and slain by the Moors, whilst endeavoring to prevent their passage or impede their progress.

In this imminent danger, nothing but prodigies of constancy and courage could have saved the invaded country; this was effected by the king of Castile, Alfonso XI. Not to leave any possible means untried, he sent deputies to various courts of Europe, in order to obtain vessels, money and troops. He could not, it is true, obtain much, owing chiefly to the obstinate war which had broken out between France and England; still, the king of Portugal, Alfonso IV, marched in person to the proposed expedition with his choicest troops, who, with those of Castile, formed an army of about forty thousand foot and fourteen thousand horse. Still the contending forces were left in the proportion of *one* Spaniard to *ten* Saracens; but such was the magnanimity, the noble confidence—nay, more, the cheerfulness displayed by the Castilian monarch, at the approach of the battle, that the utmost ardor pervaded the whole Christian army, and fully made up for the inferiority of numbers.

When the two kings advanced to meet their formidable foe, Alboacen was besieging the city of Tarifa, from which the battle has taken its name. He abandoned the siege, and posted his innumerable squadrons near a little river called Salado, where he waited the intended attack. On the twenty-eighth of October, the Christians, after having all participated in the sacred mysteries, crossed the stream, and, in battle array, marched against the Moors. History has recorded few particulars of the battle; but, how extraordinary must have been the courage displayed by the Portuguese and Castilians, if we judge from the result, which would really be incredible, were it not corroborated by the most exact historians of Spain, and had not a similar event already happened in the famous battles of Tours (A. D. 732), and Murandal (1212). Here again, in the battle of Tarifa, whilst the Christians hardly suffered any loss (not more than twenty men), from two hundred thousand to two hundred and fifty thousand Moors perished on the field of battle, besides a vast multitude of others who were taken prisoners with the family of Alboacen. This prince escaped by a precipitate flight from that field so fatal to his glory and power, and the next night recrossed the strait in a small boat; thus strikingly resembling Xerxes, and presenting another instance of the same haughty pride followed by a complete overthrow, which has rendered the Persian monarch so famous in history.

The two victorious kings returned, loaded with laurels, to their respective states. So great was the quantity of coins and other articles of booty collected in the Mahometan camp, and distributed among the troops, that gold suddenly lost one-sixth of its value. Shortly after this, the naval forces of the king of Morocco were destroyed by the combined fleets of Castile, Arragon and Portugal, under the command of the Genoese admiral, Boccanegra; Alfonso himself gained a new victory, in which forty thousand Moslems were slain, and the important city of Algesiras surrendered to that prince in 1344. So many losses greatly advanced the entire defeat of the Moors in Spain; and it might probably have been effected at that time, had not a long series of intricate dissensions arisen between the Christian sovereigns of the Peninsula, which prolonged the tottering existence of their enemies one hundred and fifty years.

WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

From this period we may date the commencement of that tremendous struggle between France and England, a struggle which lasted nearly one hundred and twenty years, and, having twice brought the French monarchy to the brink of destruction, twice also by unexpected changes, finally turned to her advantage, and deprived the English of almost all their continental possessions. The importance as well as long continuance of this war, even during its first period only, induces us to relate it under separate titles and sections.

§ I. Edward III of England and Philip VI of France, (A. D. 1328—1350).

The French King Philip IV (the Fair), at his death in 1314, left three sons, Louis, Philip and Charles, all of whom, in the short space of fourteen years, successively ascended the throne, and died without male issue. At the decease of Charles IV, the youngest of the three brothers, two competitors, Edward of England, and Philip of Valois, claimed the succession; the former as grandson, by his mother Isabella, of Philip IV, and the latter as grand-son, by his father Charles de Valois, of Philip III, the immediate predecessor of Philip IV. It had indeed been decided, in 1316, at the death of Louis X, who left a daughter, that females were, by the fundamental law of the kingdom, excluded from the French throne;

but Edward contended that, although the sex of his mother might be a disqualification for herself, it could not affect the succession of her son; Philip, on the contrary, maintained that a mother could not transmit to her issue a right which she never possessed. This important cause was brought before the peers and barons of France, who were unanimous in rejecting the pretensions of Edward.* Philip obtained the crown, and securing its possession by a signal victory over the Flemish, summoned the king of England to do him homage for the Dutchy of Guyenne.

This homage was a painful task for the English kings; and the high-minded Edward, in particular, most reluctantly submitted to the humiliating ceremony. He moreover continued to see with a jealous eye the French crown in the hands of another, and was well disposed to maintain his pretensions to it by an appeal to arms. Accordingly, as soon as the accession of the Flemish to his cause rendered his forces adequate to such a design, he openly declared war against Philip towards the beginning of the year 1338.

Fortune was at first favorable to the French in their exertions against Edward; but the naval battle of Sluys, in 1340, gave to the English a decided superiority. A powerful fleet of one hundred and twenty large vessels, carrying forty thousand men, had been raised by Philip, to intercept the British monarch on his passage from England to Flanders. Edward determined to force the passage, and disposed his ships for the combat with such prudence and skill, as to elicit the admiration of the ablest mariners. The battle was obstinate and bloody, and the king himself received a wound, which, however, rather served to increase his natural intrepidity. He skilfully took advantage of the wind and tide, and vigorously attacked the enemy's line, until the timely arrival of the Flemish, his allies, entirely decided the victory in his favor. Nearly all the French vessels were captured, and about twenty-eight thousand men slain or drowned; the loss of the English was comparatively inconsiderable.

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* That the claims of Edward III to the French throne were unfounded pretensions, can now hardly be denied, and the same has been acknowledged by many English historians, v. g. the Authors of *Univers. Hist.*, (*vol.* CVIII, *p.* 403—404); J. Reeve, in his *History of the Church*, (*vol.* II, *p.* 144—145); the Authoress of a well written *History of Great Britain and Ireland*, printed at Cork in 1815, (*vol.* I, *p.* 149); etc. Dr. Lingard contents himself with saying (*vol.* IV, *p.* 30, *note*) that Edward, in order to prove his claim, was obliged to maintain three principles, which he enumerates; but, by not adding a word in his favor, nor saying that the monarch proved any of the assertions favorable to his cause, he naturally leads the reader to conclude that the claim itself was groundless, and generally considered as such; whereas Philip de Valois, having on his side the text of the law, the judgment of the peers, and the practice of preceding times, saw his right plainly and unequivocally acknowledged.

The battle of Sluys did not, however, terminate the dispute between the two monarchs. The following years beheld a series of new and more or less insignificant expeditions, which produced no other effect than to diminish the resources of both parties, without ending the war. At length the English king resolved to make an extraordinary effort, and crush his opponent by attacking him in different points at once. Whilst an army, led by the earl of Derby, engaged the attention of the French in Guienne, Edward himself, with other troops, landed on the coasts of Normandy, and rapidly advanced towards Paris, burning or plundering all the towns in his way. The approach of Philip at the head of an army far superior in numbers to his own, induced him to retrace his steps towards the north; this he did successfully, though with great difficulty and danger. He then posted his troops upon a hill near the village of Crecy in Ponthieu, and waited in good order for the arrival of the enemy (A. D. 1346).

Shortly after, the French appeared, and, hurried on by their usual impetuosity, immediately commenced the battle, without allowing themselves any time to rest and to dispose their ranks properly. On the contrary, the English had been taught to regulate valor by discipline; so that, being well drilled, well arrayed, and well commanded, they easily overthrew the two first lines of the assailants. King Philip repeatedly strove, but in vain, to rally his forces; at each new charge, he lost the bravest of his attendants, and was finally compelled to abandon the field of battle, which, on the following day, was found covered with more than thirty thousand slain, among whom were eleven princes and twelve hundred knights. The conquerors lost but one esquire, three knights and a few persons of inferior rank.

The young prince of Wales, Edward's eldest son, began in this battle to display that courage and ability which afterwards made him so illustrious and successful a general. It was also at Crecy that artillery was for the first time made use of by the English; they had four, some say six, pieces of cannon, which greatly contributed to their victory, by the surprise and terror which they spread among the French troops.

The victorious monarch lost no time in improving his advantage. With the view of securing for the future an easy entrance into France, he laid siege to the town of Calais, which was defended by John of Vienne, an experienced commander, and supplied with every thing necessary for a long resistance. The operations of Edward were indeed slow in the beginning, but they at length obtained full success; and Calais, after sustaining a siege of twelve months, and enduring the extremities of a dreadful famine, was obliged to surrender. It was, or seemed to be the conqueror's intention to punish the obstinacy of the townsmen by putting some of them to death. He therefore insisted that six of the chief citizens should come, bare-headed and bare-foot, with ropes about their necks, to present him the keys of the town and castle. This spread consternation among the inhabitants; but the gloom was dispelled by a generous patriot, named Eustace of St. Pierre, who offered himself as a devoted victim to appease the anger of the British monarch, and whose example was soon followed by five others. They approached the English camp, and, after delivering the keys, the governor presented his sword to Edward, begging mercy for the citizens. The king appeared inflexible, rejected the intercession of his barons, and even sent for the executioner, when Queen Philippa, who had just arrived from England, threw herself on her knees before her husband, and, by tears and supplications, obtained the deliverance of the unfortunate townsmen. Edward then took possession of Calais, which, after expelling the majority of the natives, he repeopled with a colony of his own subjects. It soon became the continental mart for British merchandise, and remained in possession of the English for more than two centuries.

While the English monarch was gaining victories upon the continent, the Scots, taking advantage of his absence, invaded the frontiers with a numerous army headed by David Bruce their king. Queen Philippa, who had not yet set out from England, seeing the danger, prepared to repel it by a sudden and vigorous effort. She mustered all the forces that circumstances had left at her disposal, and sent them against the Scottish army, which they met at a place called Nevil's Cross, near Durham. A sharp contest ensued, which soon ended in the total defeat of the Scots. Fifteen thousand of them were cut to pieces; the others were routed, and driven from the field; the king himself was taken prisoner, and conducted with many of his nobles and knights to the tower of London.

Thus were the arms of Edward every where successful; but these advantages had been purchased by enormous expenses, and with the loss, it is said, of fifty thousand Englishmen. This consideration induced him to consent to a truce with Philip, who, owing to the deranged state of his affairs, had still greater need of a respite than the English monarch. Through the mediation of Pope Clement VI, the truce was concluded between the two kings, at first for a few months, but afterwards for six years.

No step could have been taken more useful and necessary than this to both nations. Almost immediately after the conclusion of peace, France and England were visited by a pestilence as general and destructive as any recorded in history. It had broken out in the centre of Asia, whence it gradually proceeded towards the West, and pervaded the different countries of Europe. Of the victims of the plague, many expired in the course of six hours, and few lingered more than two or three days. Although it can scarcely be credited, as some have asserted, that the mortality carried off one-half or one-third of the human race, we may however judge of its frightful ravages from the fact that all the cemeteries in London were soon filled, and the number of the dead in the great hospital of Paris amounted to the daily average of five hundred. This awful calamity was generally regarded as a punishment from heaven, and had the happy effect of bringing multitudes of sinners to a sense of their duty. At the same time the whole continent, from Calabria to the north of Poland, was shaken by a succession of earthquakes.

During these occurrences, King Philip died on the twenty-second of April, 1350, leaving behind him the reputation of a brave, but imprudent, of a tolerably good, but not talented prince. It was his misfortune to have to contend with so able a monarch as Edward III. Yet, notwithstanding his disasters and losses, France made under his reign the important acquisition of the province of Dauphiny, which was ceded by Humbert II, its last sovereign, under the easy condition that the eldest son of every French king should have the title and name of *Dauphin*, a condition which has been since faithfully adhered to during five centuries.

§ II. Edward III and John II. (A. D. 1350—1364).

Philip was succeeded on the throne by his son, John II, formerly called Duke of Normandy. The success which this prince had obtained in the previous war of Guienne, his experience, and the maturity of his age which was about forty years, seemed to promise a much happier reign than that of his father; quite the contrary however happened: a valor not guided by prudence, plunged the new monarch and his kingdom into an abyss of misfortunes, and prepared new triumphs for England.

The truce concluded between Edward and Philip, being now ended, hostilities recommenced. The prince of Wales, Edward, also called the *Black Prince* (from the color of his arms), opened the campaign. He set out with his troops from Bourdeaux, and laid waste all the surrounding country. The year following (1356), he did the same, and advanced into the very heart of France, destroying the crops, slaughtering the cattle, reducing to ashes the farm-houses, towns and villages, and subjecting the natives to all the horrors of war,* until the sudden approach of King John with an army of sixty thousand men admonished him to retire. But it was now too late; he found himself overtaken at Maupertuis, near Poitiers, and all he could do was to occupy a strong position upon an eminence in the midst of vineyards.

Could the remembrance of Crecy have checked the presumptuous precipitation of the French, the English prince would not have been able to escape an entire overthrow. His troops were six or seven times less numerous than those of his opponent; they had scarcely provisions for one day more; nor could they attempt to leave their camp, without manifest danger of being immediately surrounded. Well aware of the perplexing circumstance, young Edward had recourse to negotiations. He offered to restore his conquests, his booty, and his captives, promising moreover not to bear arms against France for the space of seven years. His offers were rejected; and the French, instead of letting famine force the English to surrender, rushed upon them as an assured prey, with their usual imprudence and foolish security.

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* See in Dr. Lingard (*vol.* IV. *p.* 136–137) another dreadful instance of the same inhumanity, and the just animadversion of the historian against this cruel manner of waging war, which has left a foul blot on the memory of the prince of Wales.

The event could not have proved more disgraceful for the assailants and disastrous for France. The cavalry, having entangled themselves among the vineyards and hedges with which the spot was covered, were easily overthrown by the English archers: the second line began also to waver, and soon fled with precipitation, thus permitting the Black Prince to advance at the head of his cavalry, and charge with immense advantage the division of infantry commanded by the French king in person. Here the combat grew fierce and obstinate. John, animated by despair, maintained for a while the unequal contest, and, by the terrible strokes of his battle-axe, slew or wounded those who ventured within his reach. But his strength soon failed him. He was wounded in the face, beaten to the ground, and finally taken prisoner with his youngest son Philip, who, during the engagement, had fought like the most hardy warrior to save his father's life.

Such was the ever memorable battle of Poitiers, in which a handful of Englishmen defeated the whole chivalry of France, and, besides covering the field of battle with five or six thousand slain, took fifteen thousand prisoners. The moderation of young Edward, after so splendid a victory, increased the admiration which his conduct in battle had inspired. He soothed the affliction of his royal captive, waited on him at table, and in every particular behaved towards him with all possible courtesy and respect. The next morning he continued his march with his army and his prisoners to Bourdeaux; and, having concluded a truce for two years with the dauphin Charles, regent fo France during the captivity of the king, returned from Guienne to England. He was received in London with extraordinary magnificence, which, though apparently intended to honor the French monarch, was easily referred by all to the conqueror of Poitiers.

To have taken two kings prisoners at the same time was certainly a glorious achievement; but mere glory did not satisfy Edward III, who used every means in his power to turn his victories to the best advantage. A considerable tribute to be paid for a certain number of years, was the condition on which the Scottish king obtained his liberty. The adjustment of the rival claims of England and France was infinitely more difficult, the pretensions of Edward being so high and so excessive, as to be unanimously and indignantly rejected by the French government. This refusal however appeared little in accordance with the existing state of affairs, as nothing can be conceived more distressing and deplorable than the condition to which that kingdom was now reduced. The mourning, humiliation and losses occasioned by the defeats at Sluys, Crecy and Poitiers; the dauphin left without resources; his authority disregarded; parties and dissensions springing up in several provinces; civil wars raging between the nobles and the peasants, who threw on each other the blame of the national calamities; troops of marauders destroying what had been spared by war and pestilence: every thing contributed to spread desolation over France. In order, as it were, to give the final blow to the tottering monarchy, just at this juncture, the English king resolved to renew the war, and, landing in the north, recommenced hostilities with the most numerous and best appointed army that had been raised in England for more than a century.

To meet this emergency, the dauphin wisely deviated from the course hitherto followed by the French monarchs. Knowing, from experience, the danger of general engagements with soldiers so intrepid and hardy as the English, he commanded the leaders of his troops to avoid every kind of battle, and rather to shut themselves up in towns and fortresses, with their supplies of provisions. These measures were perfectly successful. Edward, as he advanced, found a country in which his army could hardly subsist. Having no occasion to fight in the open field, he attacked the cities of Rheims and Paris, but failed in both attempts; and was compelled, in a short time, by the scarcity of provisions and the severity of the weather, to retire towards Bretagne.

The retreat of the English was like that of vanquished troops endeavoring to escape the pursuit of a victorious enemy. In the neighborhood of Chartres, a frightful storm burst upon their camp. The tents were carried away by the violence of the wind; and the clouds poured down showers of rain mixed with hail-stones of a prodigious size, which crushed to death men and horses. At the sight of the evils occasioned by his obstinacy and ambition, the king, in a moment of remorse, made a vow not to reject, any longer, honorable conditions of peace. Accordingly, the negotiations for a treaty were resumed, and it was concluded at Bretigni on terms somewhat less rigorous for France than had been proposed before. Edward consented to renounce his pretensions to the French crown, and to restore nearly all his conquests; still, he kept full possession of two or three provinces, and demanded a ransom of three million crowns of gold to be paid for the French monarch within the space of six years. These conditions were ratified by both parties, and John was at length liberated (A. D. 1360).

He did not long enjoy his liberty. Notwithstanding his perfect sincerity, which no man ever questioned, he found it an easier matter to promise than to perform, being unable to raise the stipulated sums at the time appointed for each instalment. On this account, and in consequence of other difficulties arising from the treaty of Bretigni, John determined to give himself up again to his conqueror, saying that, "If honor were banished from every other place, it should find an asylum in the breasts of kings." He actually returned to London, where he died after a few weeks, in 1364.

§ III. Edward III and Charles V. (A. D. 1364—1380).

The death of John made no change in the existing relations between France and England; and the dauphin, now King Charles V, had sufficient time to restore perfect tranquillity in his kingdom. The best measure adopted by him for this purpose was the delivery of his people from a large body of military adventurers, who, after having followed the standard of Edward III during the war, subsisted, in time of peace, by plundering the French territories. Many fruitless attempts had been made to get rid of those *companies* of formidable banditti; at length Charles succeeded, through the means of his celebrated general Du Guesclin, in inducing them to undertake an expedition into Spain, on the ground that existing circumstances might render their exertions extremely useful to that country and to themselves.

The kingdom of Castile was then groaning under the tyrannical sway of Don Pedro, son and successor of Alfonso XI. That prince, justly surnamed *the cruel*, on account of his vindictive and ferocious spirit, ascended the throne in 1350, at the age of fifteen, and marked each succeeding year by dreadful executions, the effect of his ambition, caprice or barbarous profligacy. The most illustrious of his victims was his virtuous queen, Blanche de Bourbon, a French princess, who is believed to have perished by poison. Don Henry, earl of Transtamare, and half-brother to Don Pedro, being exposed to a similar fate, fled to Paris, where he entered into a confederacy with the French court to punish the murderer of Blanche.

Accordingly, the bands of adventurers just mentioned, in addition to other bodies of troops under the conduct of Du Guesclin, entered Spain in 1366, and, rapidly marching through the kingdom of Arragon, placed Don Henry on the throne of Castile without fighting a battle. It was in vain that Pedro summoned his military tenants; they rejoiced at his distress; and he had no other resource than to throw himself on board a vessel, which carried him safely to Bayonne, whence he proceeded to Bourdeaux, the capital of the British possessions in France, and the residence of the prince of Wales. The heart of this young prince was moved by the astonishing, though merited, misfortune of Don Pedro. He readily espoused his cause, and, in order to replace him on the throne, led into Castile a gallant army, with which he attacked the enemy near Navarette. After a sharp contest, Don Henry was put to flight, Du Guesclin was taken prisoner, and Pedro, without further obstacle, again assumed the sceptre.

Unfortunately for the Castilian monarch, adversity, instead of improving, had rather exasperated his disposition. He soon returned to his former cruel course; and for the benefits bestowed upon him by young Edward, returned nothing but ingratitude, delaying, under various pretences, to make him the necessary indemnification for the expenses of the war. In the mean time, the victorious troops of his allies began to waste away, both through want of provisions and the heat of the climate; and the constitution of the British prince himself was considerably impaired. Equally indignant and alarmed, Edward abandoned the ungrateful monarch, and returned with his army through the kingdom of Navarre to his own territories.

This circumstances permitted Don Henry and Du Guesclin, who had recovered his liberty, to reenter Spain with fresh troops, in 1368. They defeated Don Pedro in several battles, in one of which he lost fifty thousand Moors, who had enlisted in his service; and at last closely besieged him in the castle of Montiel. He endeavored to make his escape during the night, but was arrested and brought to the tent of a French officer, where, either through accident or design, he was met by his brother and rival. "They immediately grappled with each other; Pedro threw Henry on the floor, and Henry, in the struggle, despatched his adversary with a poniard."

Being thus once more seated on the throne, the new king of Castile showed his gratitude to his benefactor and faithful ally, Charles V, by concluding with him an alliance offensive and defensive, and promising him assistance in vessels and troops, in case of a new war against Edward III. This war occurred very soon; the subjects of complaint between the two rival nations had been, since the death of John II, continually increasing, and his successor was at length induced to answer the lofty demands of his opponents by a declaration of war. The British possessions in France were entered by hostile armies, whose rapid progress was aided by the disaffection of the natives against a foreign government. Careful to avoid a general battle, the French extended their conquests by capturing towns, and securing them with strong fortresses and garrisons. They had, it is true, to contend against the powerful reinforcements continually sent from England for the defence of her transmarine dominions; but circumstances were now totally changed. While the English monarch was, at his advanced age, leading an indolent life, and the prince of Wales lingering under a disease which he had contracted in Spain, the wisdom of Charles and the activity of Du Guesclin constantly improved their former success. The troops of Sir Robert Knowles, stationed on the borders of Bretagne, were put to flight. A fresh and numerous army, commanded by the duke of Lancaster, was almost entirely destroyed, either by continual skirmishes, or by the fatigues of the march and the inconveniences of the season. In one place, the famous English General Chandos lost his life; in another, Captain du Buch, one of the best officers in the service of Edward, was taken prisoner; and, in 1372, the British vessels, carrying supplies to the continent, were all sunk or captured near La Rochelle, by a Spanish fleet which King Henry had, according to his promise, sent to the assistance of the French.

By this series of disasters and losses, the English found themselves compelled to ask for a truce, which was granted, and, at short intervals, repeatedly prolonged for some years. They were now deprived of nearly all their ancient possessions in France, and of all their late conquests except the town of Calais. In 1376, they sustained an irreparable loss by the death of Edward, prince of Wales, and one year later, the king, his father, followed him to the grave, at the age of sixty-five years, during fifty of which he had occupied the throne.

"In personal accomplishments," says Dr. Lingard, "Edward III is said to have been superior, in mental powers, to have been equal to any of his predecessors. More than usual care had been bestowed on his education: and he could not only speak the English and French, but also understand the German and Latin languages. His elocution was graceful; his conversation entertaining; his behavior dignified but also attractive. To the fashionable amusements of hunting and hawking he was much addicted: but to these he preferred the more warlike exercise of tournament: and his subjects, at the conclusion of the exhibition, often burst into transports of applause, when they found that the unknown knight, whose prowess they had admired, proved to be their own sovereign. Of his courage as a combatant, and his abilities as a general, the reader will have formed a competent opinion from the preceding pages. The astonishing victories, which cast so much glory on one period of his reign, appear to have dazzled the eyes both of his subjects and of foreigners, who placed him in the first rank of conquerors: but the disasters which clouded the evening of his life, have furnished a proof that his ambition was greater than his judgment. He was at last convinced that the crowns of France and Scotland were beyond his reach; but not till he had exhausted the strength of the nation by a series of gigantic but fruitless efforts. Before his death, all his conquests, with the exception of Calais, had slipped from his grasp: the greater part of his hereditary dominions on the continent, had been torn from him by a rival, whom he formerly despised: and a succession of short and precarious truces was sought and accepted as a boon by the monarch, who in his more fortunate days, had dictated the peace of Bretigni."*

Three years after the death of Edward, Charles V, king of France, also died, leaving his kingdom as prosperous and happy, as he had found it distressed and miserable. In the space of sixteen years, he had, by his consummate prudence checked the calamities and repaired the evils of the two preceding reigns. Instead of rashly exposing his own person in battle, as his father and grand-father had done, he confided the command of his armies to generals equally brave and cautious, and through them waged war with uninterrupted success, he himself directing from his cabinet the chief operations of their campaigns. Nor was his prudence less admirable in his civil, than in his military administration. At his accession to the throne, having found the coffers of the exchequer empty, he replenished them, not by an augmentation of the taxes, which he on the contrary diminished, but by a wise administration of the public revenues. Good order was reestablished in the different branches of government; peace was restored to the capital and the provinces; offices of trust were filled by men of well known merit and integrity; the king himself gave to all the example of sincere piety, purity of morals, charity to the poor, and fidelity to the laws of God and of the Church. It was thus that Charles was enabled to deliver France from powerful invaders; to assist his allies; to make his people happy; to protect the arts, sciences and commerce; to lay the foundation of the famous royal library in Paris; in a word, constantly to exemplify the truth of his own maxim: "That kings are happy, only because they have the power of doing good." His subjects bestowed on him the flattering epithet of

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* Lingard's *History of England, vol.* IV. *p.* 147-149.

"The Wise," and posterity has always pronounced him one of the greatest kings that ever sat on the throne of France. He was succeeded by his son Charles VI. Richard II, son of the Black Prince, began to reign about the same time, in the place of his grand-father Edward III.

RISE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, AND ITS PROGRESS, TILL THE BATTLE OF NICOPOLIS.—A. D. 1300—1396.

We must now turn our attention to the east of Europe, where a new and formidable foe began to make his appearance. The fourteenth century beheld the rise and progress of the savage and warlike nation of the Ottomans, who were destined to sweep from the face of the earth the last vestiges of Roman power. Fresh hordes of Turks, eager to walk in the footsteps of their ancestors, were continually pouring from Tartary over the fairest provinces of Asia—restless and uncivilized tribes, who hardly knew how to procure the necessaries of life otherwise than by war and pillage. After the fall of the Seljukian Turks of Iconium, these barbarians occupied their possessions in Asia Minor, under the conduct of seven independent chieftains commonly called emirs.

The most skilful and powerful of these chieftains was *Othman*, from whom the Turks have derived the name of *Ottomans*. His valor and activity soon enabled him to prevail over the petty princes by whom he was surrounded; he rendered himself master of a great part of Bithynia; and continued his victorious career for the space of twenty-seven years (A. D. 1300—1326). His plan of aggrandizement was successfully followed by Orcan, his son and successor. Whilst the degenerate Greeks were continually weakening themselves by civil dissensions and wars, the well combined forces of the Turks daily increased the extent and strength of their empire. They captured, in a short time, the cities of Prusium, Nicomedia and

Nice; and, crossing the strait of Constantinople, began to carry their victorious arms into Europe. Many important places of Thrace, and even the city of Adrianople, had already fallen into their power, when Orcan died, in 1360.

Amurat, who was the third sultan (sovereign) of the Turks, consolidated the throne which his predecessors had reared, by organizing the intrepid band of the *Janizaries*, whose number amounted, in different times, from ten to forty thousand; a body resembling, in almost every respect, that of the Prætorians at Rome under the Emperors, and of the Mamelukes in Egypt since the time of Saladin. A regular and gallant troop of cavalry, called *Spahis*, had already been established by Orcan; it was subsequently improved by Amurat. This able monarch, having chosen Adrianople for the seat of his residence, kept, from that city, a watchful eye on the conduct of the neighboring states, in order to turn all their proceedings to his own advantage; for, although he was, we are told, a great admirer of virtue and lover of justice, yet he lost no opportunity to gratify his ambition. Hence his reign, which lasted twenty-nine years (A. D. 1360—1389), was little else than a continual warfare, and was rendered famous by thirty-seven victories, the last of which, however, proved more fatal to himself than to his numerous enemies, the Hungarians, Servians, and other nations of eastern Europe, who had united their forces to oppose his progress. After the battle, as he was visiting the plain covered with the dead and dying, a Servian soldier, who lay among the rest, suddenly arose, and with a dagger stabbed the sultan, who expired in two hours, in the midst of his victory.

The next sultan, Bajazet I, is well known in history under the surname of *Ilderim* (lightning); an epithet which he fully deserved by the rapidity of his conquests, and the uncommon quickness with which he continually passed from Europe to Asia, and from Asia to Europe.

He assembled and marshaled his forces, separated and reunited them with incredible activity; he would disappear for a time, and suddenly appear again when he was thought to be at a distance. Sometimes, however, Bajazet met with enemies not less brave and skilful than himself; and his life presented a constant alternation of brilliant victories and overwhelming defeats.

His efforts were at first directed against several petty sovereigns of Armenia and Asia Minor, who were all easily subdued. He then turned his attention to a more powerful and warlike opponent, Stephen, prince of Moldavia, who had, two years before, defeated in a great battle the generals of Amurat, the father of Bajazet. Anxious to restore the honor of the Turkish name, Bajazet marched rapidly through the province of Thrace, crossed the Danube and entered the territory of his enemy, who was as eager as himself for the meeting. After a fierce conflict, the Moldavians were routed; and their leader, who was the last to quit the field of battle, fled towards Nols, a fortified town, where he had left his mother and children. He found the gates closed against him by his mother's command. From the top of the ramparts, this courageous woman upbraided him for his flight, and bade him return, renew the fight, and, if he could not conquer, rather die than survive his defeat. This revived at once the courage and hopes of Stephen; he immediately returned, rallied about twelve thousand men, and rushed upon the Turks, who were engaged in pillaging, with such impetuosity and vigor, that nearly all were cut in pieces; the imperial tent, with a considerable booty, fell into the power of the Moldavians; and the proud sultan precipitately retired to the extremities of his dominions.

He soon reappeared, more fierce and formidable than ever. Thrace, Greece and other provinces were overrun and laid waste by his armies; and if, for reasons of policy and prudence, he did not yet attack Constantinople, he at least made the suburbs of that city the limits of the Greek empire. The reigning imperial family was treated by him with the utmost contempt. New fortifications having been added to the capital by the emperor John Paleologus, Bajazet was displeased, and sent an order for their demolition, which order Paleologus obeyed. The next emperor, Manuel, received also from the haughty sultan a command to remain in Constantinople; he complied with the injunction, leaving the city but once, in order to appear at the court of Bajazet, which he did at the risk of his life; for his preservation he was indebted to the generous commiseration of a Turkish officer. He then wrote pressing letters to the Christian sovereigns of Europe, for the purpose of imploring their assistance; and his example was imitated by Sigismond, king of Hungary, who was not less anxious to remove the impending storm from his frontiers.

These letters and solicitations had little effect, except in France, which furnished a large number of soldiers and knights under the command of the earl of Nevers, a prince of the royal family. They marched through Bavaria, and joined, near the Danube, the Hungarians commanded by Sigismond, whose forces then amounted to upwards of a hundred thousand men. When he reviewed them, he is said to have exclaimed, in a transport of confidence and joy, that "if the firmament itself should fall, they might support it with their lances." His hopes, however, were grounded more on appearances than reality; for, if bravery was the distinguishing character of his followers, discord, jealousy, presumption and licentiousness also reigned among them; and Bajazet showed greater foresight than Sigismond, when, on being informed of these disorders, he said that his enemies would surely provoke against themselves the justice of their God.

After some partial engagements, in which the Christians constantly prevailed over the Turks, they commenced a general battle near the city of Nicopolis in Bulgaria (A. D. 1396). When the two armies approached, Sigismond entreated the French to unite prudence with valor against an enemy with whose mode of warfare they were not sufficiently acquainted. The advice was good, but given to no purpose, the earl of Nevers and other young lords imagining that it was the intention of Sigismond to deprive them of the honor of beginning the battle. They therefore, without waiting for the Hungarians, rushed on against the first squadrons of the Turks with equal disorder and intrepidity. The enemy pretended to be terrified, and fled; the French pursued them, with full confidence of an easy victory, when, on a sudden, they found themselves not only surrounded by numerous bands of Spahis and Janizaries, whom Bajazet had placed in ambuscade, but also entangled amidst an incredible quantity of stakes which had been purposely planted in order to embarrass their march; so that the Christian cavalry could neither advance nor retire. Resolved at least to sell their lives as dearly as possible, they still continued fighting with undaunted valor, and for several hours spread terror and death among the thickest battalions of the Turks. At length, sinking under the weight of fatigue, and overpowered by the multitudes of their opponents, they fell, almost all, under the Ottoman sword; the remaining few were taken prisoners.

Bajazet immediately led all his forces against the main body of the confederates, put them to flight, and entered their camp, where his soldiers found invaluable riches. Sigismond seeing every thing lost, threw himself into a boat, and following the course of the Danube, and then the coasts of the Euxine sea, succeeded, after many adventures, in reaching the imperial city of Constantinople, where his arrival as a fugitive announced his defeat and spread consternation. All trembled at the approach of the victorious sultan; the Greek capital was more than ever threatened with a siege, and would probably have become an easy prey to the Turks, had not its downfal been delayed by the sudden appearance of another conqueror far superior to Bajazet himself.

TAMERLANE AND THE MOGULS.—A. D. 1396—1405.

BATTLE OF ANCYRA.—1402.

Timor, better known by the name of Tamerlane, had been raised, amidst the confusion of civil wars, from the station of a petty sovereign to the throne of the Moguls and Tartars, in the year 1369. He soon reestablished, by his indefatigable activity and courage, the vast empire of Genghis-Kan in Asia. History can scarcely follow him through his gigantic expeditions; and the imagination itself is astounded at the rapidity with which he carried his destructive sword from the centre of Tartary to the borders of Egypt, and from the river Indus to the frozen deserts of Siberia. Such was the man whom Providence destined to crush the pride and overthrow the power of Bajazet.

Historians are not unanimous in explaining the motives which induced these two mighty princes to turn their arms against each other. It is generally supposed that the complaints of both the Greek emperor and the Mussulman princes of Asia, against the encroachments of Bajazet, were the chief reason of Tamerlane's conduct on this occasion; but it might also be sufficiently accounted for by the character of the two rivals. In the opinion of the Tartar monarch, it was neither proper nor possible that the world could be governed by two sovereigns of equal power; nor was the Turkish sultan inferior to him in point of ambition. This clearly appears from the scornful and arrogant invectives in which they indulged against each other, before hostilities commenced, and which became the signal of the most bloody catastrophe.

Tamerlane set out from the East at the head of his intrepid Tartars; and, as if he had resolved to give Bajazet an idea of the ravages which every where accompanied his armies, he made their march across Armenia and Syria one continued military expedition. These unfortunate countries, so often before the theatre of disastrous warfare, were again laid waste, their riches seized, their cities destroyed, their inhabitants slaughtered; streams of blood, and towers built with human bodies and skulls, every where marked the passage of the Mogul conqueror.

At length, the Tartars directed their course towards the Turkish dominions. Tamerlane marched through Anatolia with eight hundred thousand men, whilst Bajazet, on his side, fearlessly advanced to meet him, at the head of four hundred thousand brave soldiers. These formidable armies came in sight near Ancyra (July 1402), and there, through the whole extent of a vast plain, engaged in a conflict more furious and frightful than even imagination can picture. It lasted three days, and cost the lives, according to the lowest calculation, of one hundred and eighty thousand, according to others, of three hundred and forty, or even four hundred thousand of the combatants. Victory at last decided in favor of the Tartars. The remaining Turks were dispersed; and the sultan, after he had fought till the last moment with desperate valor, was surrounded by a host of enemies eager to secure so important a prize, and, in spite of all his efforts, became their prisoner.

Not only different, but even contradictory, are the accounts given of the manner in which Bajazet was treated by Tamerlane. The more probable, as being founded on the testimony of most of the historians who wrote near that time, is that the Mogul prince received his captive into his own tent with great kindness and regard, and, making him sit by his side on the same carpet, spoke to him in the most consoling terms; but that Bajazet, far from being grateful for this noble and generous reception, evinced no other feeling than that of ferocious haughtiness and impotent rage, which deeply offended his conqueror. To the question put by Tamerlane, "what he would have done, if fortune had been favorable to him," he answered, "I would have confined you in an iron cage."—"Let such, then, be your own mansion," replied Tamerlane. The sentence was enforced, and Bajazet, unable to bear the excess of his misfortune, died one or two years after, some say, of grief and despair, others, of apoplexy. His sons were permitted to divide, or rather to dispute among themselves the wrecks of his empire, and the Mogul conqueror returned to his own dominions.

It may not be amiss to describe here more fully the character of this extraordinary prince. By the oriental nations, Tamerlane is assimilated to Alexander-the-Great; and the renowned biographer Feller, in his *Historical Dictionary* (article *Tamerlane*), seems to approve of that idea, which he even endeavors to confirm by some examples. The comparison may be true with respect to exploits and military abilities; but, in many other particulars, it is certainly false. Alexander was ambitious, without being naturally cruel; whilst, on the contrary, nothing can be conceived more barbarous than the manner in which Tamerlane conducted his wars, and treated those who presumed to resist. By his orders, seventy thousand persons were inhumanly slaughtered in the capture of Ispahan; one hundred and twenty thousand in that of Sebaste; ninety thousand in that of Bagdad, which city was utterly destroyed; and so proportionally in other places. In the conquest of India, millions of the natives were hunted like wild beasts, and put to the sword, the multitude of prisoners being moreover so great, that each of the Tartar soldiers had many in his power. On one occasion, Tamerlane caused a hundred thousand of those unhappy captives to be slain in the space of an hour; on another, he commanded multitudes of unfortunate people to be crushed under the feet of horses, or to be buried alive; and, besides, invariably kept up the horrid custom, which we have already mentioned, of building towers with human skulls, as monuments of his victories.* Never assuredly were there deeds of cruelty so awful and so multiplied, perpetrated either by Alexander-the-Great, or any other conqueror except Tamerlane.

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* These, and other particulars respecting Tamerlane, may be seen in *Univers. Hist. vol.* XLVIII, *p.* 220—468; Anquetil, *Précis. de l'Hist.*

It is truly astonishing that the *man* who could commit such atrocities in war, displayed, in the other transactions of his life, justice, generosity and sensibility. Equitable in his judgments, and zealous in the correction of abuses, he was kind towards his relations, attentive to the welfare of his troops, and triumphant in rewarding their services, humane towards all his subjects and desirous of their happiness, particularly towards the close of his career. "I do not wish," he once said to his counsellors, "that the distressed and the poor should cry out for vengeance against me on the day of judgment. I do not wish that any one of my brave soldiers, who have so many times exposed their lives in my service, should have to complain of me and of my ingratitude. I am more sensible of their wants than they are themselves. None of my subjects ought to hesitate to lay his grievances before me; for my intention is that the world shall, under my reign, become a sort of Paradise; and I know that when a king is just and beneficent, his kingdom is blessed with prosperity and glory."

Such was the language in which Tamerlane expressed the noble feelings of his soul in relation to the government of his people. With regard to intellectual faculties, to a sound mind, which distinguished him in council as much as his extraordinary valor distinguished him in battles, he is said to have added a wonderful sagacity, which enabled him to unravel the most hidden intrigues and detect the most artful stratagems of his enemies, whilst his own secrets remained impenetrable. His principle in governing was to secure by unshaken firmness the execution of his orders, and to attend in person to all transactions of consequence. The palaces, mosques, cities, bridges, canals,

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Univers. vol. IV. *p.* 446—466; Michaut, *Hist. des Croisades, vol.* V, *p.* 289—292; *Hist. du Bas Empire, vol.* XXVI, *p.* 362—367.

magnificent roads, colleges, hospitals for the infirm, for travellers and for the poor, and many other public buildings and institutions, which owed to him their existence, would suffice to illustrate the reigns and the lives of several monarchs.

Tamerlane preserved, till the end of his days, a robust constitution, great bodily strength, and astonishing fortitude. He disliked flattery, and, instead of being offended by correction and advice, required that the truth, plain and entire, should be spoken to him; the motto on his seal was, "I am candid and sincere." A friend to learning, he frequently read history, and liked to converse with skilful men, in order to increase his stock of knowledge. In fine, a very extraordinary feature in this mighty sovereign and conqueror, was the singular modesty which he evinced in the midst of his triumphs, not ascribing them to his own exertions and talents, but to the omnipotence of God, who made use of him to chastise nations and to recall them to the path of justice. He believed, as a zealous Mussulman, that he was called to redress grievances, and to exterminate the abettors of all religions contrary to his own; and we have seen how faithfully he complied with this imaginary mission.

After the successful termination of his campaign against the Turks, his advanced age and protracted labors seemed to call for repose; yet, even at that time, he meditated new conquests. In a fresh transport of Mahometan zeal, he determined to attack the Chinese, and for this purpose he set out with two hundred thousand men, in the dead of winter, from Samarcand, his capital city; but, being seized with a violent fever, he expired before he had reached the confines of China, in the seventy-first year of his age, and the thirty-sixth of his reign (A. D. 1405). His death was soon followed by the division of his vast empire into many principalities and kingdoms, the most remarkable of which was that of the Moguls in the East Indies, now under the sway of the British government.

RENEWAL OF WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE

The condition of England and France was much alike during the latter portion of the fourteenth, but became quite different in the beginning of the fifteenth century. The two young kings, Richard II and Charles VI, showed good intentions, and even, on many occasions, displayed great spirit and courage; but the ambition of three uncles (in England, the dukes of Lancaster, Gloucester and York—and in France, the dukes of Berry, Anjou and Burgundy,) proved for both of them a constant source of misfortunes, and occasioned many disturbances in the two kingdoms.

England however suffered less, and not only was the first to recover from her losses, but even quickly reassumed her former ascendency and menacing attitude, in consequence of the great internal strength whlch she acquired under the prosperous reign of Henry IV, first king of the house of Lancaster, who had, in 1399, dethroned and succeeded his cousin Richard II. France, on the contrary, continued to sink deeper and deeper into an abyss of calamities; especially after Charles VI began to experience frequent fits of insanity. Each one of the princes of his family wished to hold the reigns of government; their disputes gave rise to a long train of dissensions and animosities which terminated in the murder of several of their number, and increased the misery of the whole nation; nor did England fail to turn these disturbances of France to her own advantage.

§ I. Henry V and Charles VI. (A. D. 1413—1422).

Henry V, son and successor of Henry IV, is represented by historians as most sagacious in council, skilled in military tactics, and one of the bravest knights of his age. He had, more seriously than any of his predecessors, conceived and matured the design of subduing the French monarchy, which, after the example of Edward III, he affected to claim as his inheritance. Having raised a gallant army, he landed at Harfleur, on the 14th of August 1415, before the French were ready to oppose his invasion. The town was invested; and, after a brave resistance of five weeks, its walls were demolished by the English artillery, and its garrison obliged to surrender. The siege however had cost Henry many officers and men, and a dysentery soon reduced his forces to nearly half their number; in this situation, unable to adopt offensive measures, he determined to retire to Calais, whence he might safely reembark for England.

But to carry out this resolution was a very difficult task: there were no bridges over the rivers; and an army of one hundred thousand French soldiers, five times more numerous than that of their opponents, had been stationed between the English and Calais. At Agincourt, on the 24th of October, Henry found himself in the very same condition in which Edward III and the prince of Wales found themselves, the former seventy, the latter sixty years before; and, like them, he gave the world a new proof how much a skilful commander and a few well disciplined troops can effect against a multitude of undisciplined warriors. In his camp and army, perfect order was observed, and ready obedience paid to the commands of their gallant leader; on the side of his enemies, notwithstanding some wise dispositions of the commander-in-chief, the constable d'Albert, all was confusion, insubordination and temerity. The night previous to the battle was spent by the English in religious exercises, by the French, who did not suspect the possibility of a defeat, in tumultuous merriment. The result as might naturally be expected, was the complete triumph of the former, and the entire overthrow of the latter, twenty-four thousand of whom, including the chief leaders and twelve princes, paid with death or captivity, the forfeit of their rash and presumptous courage. The conquerors referred with gratitude to Almighty God the honor of so signal and astonishing a victory; the 113th psalm was sung in thanksgiving after the battle; and it was an edifying spectacle to behold the king and the whole army prostrate themselves at these words of the Royal Prophet, "*Not to us, O Lord, not to us; but to thy name give glory.*

The defeat of Agincourt was still more fatal to France than the disastrous battles of Crecy and Poitiers. The road was now opened into the heart of that kingdom; and Henry V was both too ambitious and too skilful not to follow up his advantage with incessant ardor. This was his chief and almost exclusive object during the subsequent years, and success crowned his new efforts even beyond expectation. Within a short time, Normandy and the neighboring provinces were subdued; town after town surrendered; Paris itself, the constant theatre of turbulent factions, opened its gates to the conqueror; and King Charles VI, whose mental powers were almost totally prostrated, was induced to taket he English monarch for his son-in-law, and, contrary to the fundamental rules of inheritance in France, to appoint him his successor. The dauphin Charles, who was heir apparent to the crown, appealed from this illegal disinherison to God and to the sword. After the death of his unfortunate and cruelly misled father, in 1422, he caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign in all the provinces situated on the south of the river Loire, the others being occupied by the English and their partisans, who called him, through mockery, *King of Bourges*. The same year witnessed also the premature death of his formidable rival, Henry V, who had not reached his thirty-fifth year. This great prince expired on the last day of August, leaving an infant son, Henry VI, who was crowned King of England and France, under the regency of his two uncles, the dukes of Gloucester and Bedford.

§ II. Henry VI and Charles VII. (A. D. 1422—1453).

The important events just mentioned, and the change of the principal leaders in each party, though ultimately advantageous to France, did not present at first a favorable prospect for that kingdom. The duke of Bedford, a courageous and skilful prince, was determined to effect its entire subjection, and for a time was so successful, that Charles VII, after several defeats, found himself destitute of money, troops, and assistance, having but a few knights who remained devoted to his cause. His situation became still more perplexing, when the English, always advancing in their course of conquest, laid siege to Orleans, the only town that prevented them from crossing with safety the river Loire, and invading the southern provinces (1629).

On both sides the siege gave rise to innumerable and wonderful exertions of ability and vigor, the resistance being, on all occasions, proportionate to the attack. As, however, the English received fresh supplies of provisions and troops with greater facility than the garrison of the place, its fall was confidently anticipated by them, and the most gloomy apprehensions began to prevail in the councils of the French monarch. Charles himself meditated a retreat into the distant county of Provence, when he unexpectedly, and from an extraordinary source, received assistance which revived his hopes, filled his enemies with dismay, and turned forever the tide of success.

In a village, on the borders of Lorraine, lived a country girl named Joan, about seventeen years of age, and of irreproachable character. When the hope of saving Orleans was almost abandoned, she presented herself before the governor of Vaucouleur, and maintained, with extraordinary confidence, that she was commissioned by heaven to raise the siege of that place, and to procure the coronation of the king in the city of Rheims. Her tone of conviction and her repeated assurances prevailed upon the governor to send her well guarded to Charles; she met the French court at Chinon in Touraine. There, whatever may be said by several recent authors in opposition to the multitude of more ancient documents, every precaution was taken to avoid even the possibility of illusion or imposture.* Joan underwent a most rigid examination before a committee of persons eminent for their prudence and learning, and also before the courtiers, and the king himself; and constantly gave such marks of sagacity, wisdom, and more than human knowledge, as to cause her claims to a supernatural mission to be very generally admitted. She consequently received the complete armor of a knight, and the liberation of Orleans was intrusted to her charge.

The first exploit of Joan was her entrance into the besieged city, and her success in conveying a plentiful and much needed supply of provisions to the garrison, at the head of which she then successively attacked and carried the strongest posts of the English. The enemy, dispirited by so many losses, hastily abandoned the siege; but, being pursued by the heroine, and driven from the towns into which they had retired, they were completely defeated at Patay, with the loss of nearly five thousand men, whilst the French had only one man of their number killed.

Joan had always declared that the object of her mission was twofold, the liberation of Orleans, and the coronation of the king at Rheims. The first of these objects being accomplished, she now urged the execution of the second; and, though the attempt was a dangerous one, the intermediate country being in possession of the English or of the Burgundians, their allies, she prevailed upon Charles to place full confidence in her promises; nor was he in any way deceived. As soon as he began his march with twelve thousand men, all obstacles disappeared, or were easily overcome; and the citizens of Rheims, having expelled the Burgundian garrison, received him with the most flattering demonstrations of joy.

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* See *Hist. de Jeanne d'Arc*, 12mo;—*Hist. de l'Egl.* Béraut-Berc., *vol.* VIII. *p.* 31–45;—*Hist. de l'Egl. Gall. discours sur la Pucelle d'Orléans*, at the end of the 16th vol., where the learned author, F. Berthier, adduces innumerable evidences, and upwards of twenty contemporary or almost contemporary authors, French, Italian, German, etc. in favor of Joan d'Arc and of her claims to a divine mission.

The coronation was performed in the usual manner. During the ceremony, Joan, in her warlike dress, and with her banner unfurled, stood filled with grateful emotions near the altar; when it was over, she threw herself on her knees, declared her mission accomplished, and with tears solicited leave to return to her country-life; but the king being unwilling to lose her services so soon, she, at his request, consented to remain with the army. Her courage indeed was always the same, but success did not follow her exertions so constantly as before. Having undertaken to defend Compiegne as she had done Orleans, and making a sally at the head of some troops, she fell, notwithstanding her heroic efforts, into the hands of the enemy. The shouts of the English and Burgundians announced her fate to the besieged, whom this melancholy news threw into deep affliction; the place however continued to defy the power of the assailants, and the siege was raised by the approach of a French army (A. D. 1430).

The unfortunate maid was treated with neglect by her friends, with cruelty by her enemies. Charles, who owed so much to her, does not seem to have made any efforts to rescue her from captivity, whether because he thought his endeavors would be unavailing, or because he yielded to the jealousy of some of the courtiers and generals against Joan, is uncertain. The English, exasperated by the repeated defeats and losses she had caused them, resolved to gratify their revenge. For this purpose, nothing, not even the most iniquitous proceeding, was left untried; and, to the eternal disgrace of the duke of Bedford and of the committee which he had appointed, the awful crimes of heresy, idolatry, sorcery and profligacy were imputed to the heroine who had given constant and undeniable proofs of her piety, innocence and purity of life. Her death was desired; she was executed at the stake as a sorceress, in the market-place of Rouen, before an immense concourse of spectators, who could not restrain their tears. Twenty-five years later, her condemnation was reversed by the archbishop of Rheims and the bishops of Paris and Coutances, whom Pope Calixtus III had designated to revise the mock trial. After the most assiduous and minute inquiries, after hearing one hundred and twelve persons of unexceptionable character, dukes, counts, magistrates, etc., who formerly had been witnesses of the superhuman virtues and exploits of Joan d'Arc; they pronounced the first sentence passed against her unjust, wicked, and slanderous; and she was solemnly declared innocent of all the crimes with which she had been charged by her enemies.*

* Several writers, and Dr. Lingard himself, who upon this matter seems not to have been sufficiently acquainted with the best sources of information, have endeavored to explain the marvellous actions of the Maid of Orleans by mere natural causes; ascribing them to enthusiastic excitement, to a deluded imagination, which the French court was careful to put to profit. If, however, we attentively consider that Joan d'Arc, a timid girl, not more than seventeen years of age, and hitherto employed, not in a city, but in the peaceful and modest occupations of a country life, from the moment she appeared in court and at the head of armies, evinced in every thing a surprising wisdom and energy of soul, that she became, on a sudden, an intrepid warrior and an accomplished commander, whilst she always remained a perfect model of innocence, piety and all Christian virtues; that her claim to a supernatural mission was, after the severest trials, admitted by persons of every description, by her countrymen and by foreigners, by friends and by foes, and even by the greatest enemies of France, whose desire it was to have her conduct attributed to an evil principle; that all she said was found true; that all she foretold exactly happened in the time, place and other circumstances predicted: if we attentively consider all this, we will surely find it very difficult, nay absolutely impossible, not to acknowledge in the authentic story of Joan d'Arc something above the ordinary laws of nature; not to believe that she really was under the special guidance of heaven; not to admit in her public career a display of the power and wisdom of God, who *chooses the weak things of the world that he may confound the strong* (1 Cor. I, 27), and who, after having *humbled* France, wished to *raise* it again by the hands of a woman, as he formerly saved his chosen people through the instrumentality of Deborah, Judith and Esther.

The English had cherished a hope that the death of Joan would incline the balance in their favor; in this they were disappointed. Such was the impulse which that heroine had given to the course of events, that England could no longer arrest the progress of France. Charles took Paris with most of the other places conquered by Henry V, and the British retained the rest only in virtue of a truce which the two nations concluded in 1444. Thus did Henry IV lose one of the two crowns which he had inherited from his father; whilst the other likewise began to sit lightly on his head, owing to the rise of strong and hostile parties in his own kingdom.

During this season of calamity for Great Britain, the state of the French monarchy was considerably improved by the wise administration of Charles VII. The better to repair past evils and prevent their recurrence, he established several bodies of regular and standing troops, from whose cooperation both he and his successors derived the greatest advantages in upholding the dignity of their crown, repelling foreign invaders, and restoring tranquillity in the provinces. Stability and peace every where took the place of insubordination and anarchy. The former strength of the nation was restored; and every thing now conduced to the final overthrow of the English on the continent.

In the year 1449, Francis Surienne, a British commander, having been guilty of an infraction of the existing truce, by capturing and plundering the town of Fougeres, the French king availed himself of the opportunity to renew the war with immense advantage. England was involved in domestic dissensions; and her power abroad had been much weakened by the recent loss of two battles against the Scots. In one year, Charles recovered Normandy with its hundred fortresses. A like success attended his arms in the invasion of Guienne; the decisive victories of Fourmigni and Chatillon, the former in the north, the latter in the south of France, secured his conquests; and the English were driven from every inch of ground they had possessed in that kingdom with the exception of the city of Calais (1453).

About this time, Poland, until then comparatively little known, rose in point of civilization, glory and power, to a conspicuous rank among the European states. For this elevation she was indebted to the government of the Jagellos, who occupied the Polish throne nearly two hundred years, from 1386 to 1572. Germany also flourished at this period under the emperor Sigismond, who reigned from 1410 to 1437. Though unsuccessful in war, that prince governed with honor and ability in time of peace, and was enabled to transmit his three crowns of Germany, Bohemia and Hungary to Albert of Austria, his son-in-law; thus laying the foundation of that great power and influence which the house of Austria so long enjoyed in Europe.

FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE.—A. D. 1453.

The Greek empire, in the mean time, was drawing near to its extinction. The defeat of Bajazet Ilderim by Tamerlane had, it is true, delivered Constantinople from that terrible Sultan of the Turks, but not from the Turks themselves, who, in a short time, reappeared on the field of battle, as undaunted and powerful as ever. After the pacific reign of Mahomet I, who died in 1421, Amurat II, his son and successor, renewed hostilities against the Greeks, the Hungarians, and other Christian nations in the vicinity of his frontiers. Notwithstanding the losses and defeats which he occasionally sustained, he continued to gain ground, and at last gave the deadly blow to the league of his opponents in the famous battle of Warna, in 1444. This battle was more fatal to the cause of Christendom than that of Nicopolis had been, in as much as it opened a wide field to the enterprising spirit of the Turks, and deprived Constantinople of its last resources.

In fine, Mahomet II appeared, the most terrible of all the Turkish sultans. No sooner had he grasped the sceptre left by his father Amurat, than he resolved to snatch the Greek capital from the hands of the reigning emperor, Constantine Paleologus or Dragazes, a prince worthy of better times, but whose heroic exertions could postpone only for a short period the fall of Constantinople. This was the last struggle between a power recently founded, but already the most formidable in the world, and an ancient monarchy, the glory of which had filled the whole earth, but which now presented nothing but degeneracy and discord.

There was not less difference in the character of the two monarchs than in the respective strength and fate of their empires. All admired the virtue and moderation of Paleologus, his prudence in council, his intrepidity on the field of battle, and his unshaken firmness in adversity. Mahomet displayed on every occasion a bold and haughty spirit, and a boundless ambition. He was, we are told, a lover of the arts and sciences, and could speak several languages; but those pacific studies had not curbed his ferocious temper: in war, he spared neither his enemies nor his own soldiers, and frequently peace itself was rendered bloody by the violence of his passions.—The last successor of Constantine-the-Great possessed all the virtues of a Christian and magnanimous prince; the son of Amurat was characterized by all the vices of a Mussulman and lawless conqueror.

As the siege of Constantinople was to be commenced in the spring of 1453, the preceding winter was actively spent by both parties in making the necessary preparations. During the first days of April, the imperial city was surrounded by a fleet of three hundred and twenty vessels, and by a land army of three hundred thousand men, one-third of whom were cavalry. To these formidable forces Constantine Paleologus could oppose only a few ships and galleys, and eight or nine thousand warriors, partly Greeks and partly Italians, with whom he had to defend a territory of about twelve miles in circumference. He appointed for their commander-in-chief, Justiniani, a Genoese officer of great experience; distributed them as well as he possibly could throughout the different posts of the rampart; and reserved for himself one of the points most exposed to the assaults of the enemy.

The Turks employed in that siege all the resources of the destructive art of warfare, such as mines dug beneath the walls of the city, rolling towers, battering rams, and a multitude of machines destined to cast stones, darts and arrows. Above all, the use of artillery having now become general, Mahomet did not fail to supply his troops with this powerful means of attack, and prepared fourteen batteries of enormous cannon, and balls of proportionate size. Some of those pieces of ordnance could send balls of two hundred pounds weight; and one of them in particular, called *Basilica*, sent a ball weighing upwards of six quintals, to the distance of more than a mile. It required two thousand men and about one hundred and fifty oxen to remove it from the spot where it was made, to its intended battery. Its interior circumference was nine feet, and its weight thirty or forty thousand pounds. But experience proved that the use of such enormous guns produced greater encumbrance and disadvantage than real utility; the famous Basilica, being soon overheated, burst with a frightful explosion, and killed, among other persons, its very maker, who was a Hungarian apostate.

The Greeks too were abundantly provided with military engines, cannon and Grecian fire, which they used with tremendous effect against the Turks, day and night repelling their assaults, ruining their works, and consigning their machines to the flames. These heroic exertions were owing chiefly to the emperor and his general Justiniani, whose indefatigable activity seemed to multiply their persons and make them present in every place where succor was required. This appeared particularly on the following occasion.

When Mahomet perceived that the exterior fortifications of the town had been almost entirely destroyed by the continual firing of his artillery, he commanded his troops to prepare for an assault. His hope of success rested chiefly on a tremendous wooden tower many stories high, and full of combatants, which he caused, with all possible precaution, to advance towards the wall. Here a fierce conflict took place, which was continued two days with incredible animosity and prodigious efforts on both sides. At length victory declared in favor of the Greeks; the Turks were repelled, and had the mortification to see their wooden tower overthrown and soon reduced to ashes. This unexpected result highly exasperated Mahomet, who could not forbear saying that, had thirty thousand prophets foretold so extraordinary a disaster, he would not have believed the prediction.

A few weeks after this event, a similar disgrace which befel his fleet, and which he himself witnessed, threw him into a paroxysm of rage. Four Christian vessels appeared in sight of Constantinople, and, disregarding the great number of the Ottoman ships, fearlessly advanced towards the harbor. The enemy went to obstruct their passage, with full confidence of an easy victory; but the four frigates opened upon them so terrible and so well-timed a fire, that many of the Turkish vessels were sunk, and others greatly damaged. Mahomet, who had observed the combat from a neighboring hill, descended, foaming with rage, and spurring his horse into the sea, even at the risk of his life, loaded the commanders of his galleys with the most bitter reproaches, and was carried so far by his passion as brutally to strike the admiral with a golden rod which he held in his hands. But all his fury and threats were idle; the four ships steadily pursued their course; and, continuing to disperse his navy, opened for themselves a free passage to the harbor, where they entered in triumph amidst the acclamations of the Greeks, who, from the top of their ramparts, had also been spectators of the combat. It is thought that the Turks had sent about two hundred vessels against this intrepid flotilla, and, without killing one single Christian, lost no fewer than twelve thousand men.*

The besieged possessed a vast advantage, as long as they kept possession of their excellent harbor; nor could the Ottoman fleet force its entrance, which was obstructed by a line of strong galleys and an enormous chain of iron reaching from shore to shore. To deprive them of this resource, Mahomet conceived the bold design of transporting by land seventy or eighty of his vessels from the sea into the port. This fact, though it may seem incredible, is related in substance by all the contemporary historians. With regard to its circumstances, it appears that, by dint of men and machines, the vessels were caused to roll through a space of three or four miles over planks thickly covered with grease. As all was done during the night and with great celerity, the garrison and inhabitants of Constantinople did not discover the plan, until it was too late to prevent its execution. They were surprised and alarmed at seeing the enemy now near their ramparts and their homes, and attempted, but in vain, to destroy the Turkish vessels, by means of the Grecian fire, which had so often before saved Constantinople. Forty of their most intrepid warriors, who had taken upon themselves this hazardous enterprise, were basely betrayed, fell into the hands of the Turks, and paid with their lives for their generous devotedness.

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* This event and other similar incidents plainly show the great superiority of the Christians over the Ottomans, in discipline, military science, and valor. If the latter were at length successful in overthrowing the Greek empire, this was evidently owing to their vast multitude, and to the continual arrival of new reinforcements, rather than to real and well directed bravery. How great the difference between the warriors of the fifth crusade and those of Mahomet II. Here we see *three hundred thousand* Turks, supplied with a formidable artillery, scarcely able, *after a siege of eight weeks,* to take Constantinople, whose garrison did not amount to more than *eight or nine thousand soldiers;* whereas *twenty thousand* crusaders, in *three days*, carried it by storm, in spite of the efforts of more than *two hundred thousand men*, by whom it was defended!

The garrison, however, continued to defend itself with admirable vigor, after the example of its emperor, whose exertions seemed to be the effect of almost superhuman energy. This excellent prince was acting, at the same time, the part of a father, a sovereign, a soldier, and a general; scarcely allowing himself any repose, but continually occupied in encouraging by word and example a pusillanimous and ill-disposed people, or sharing with his brave garrison in the fatigues of the siege and the dangers of unceasing combats. During the day, he was foremost in fighting and repelling the enemy; during the night his chief occupation was to reconcile, to soothe and to relieve by every means in his power, his discontented, distressed, and ungrateful subjects. Thus, without ever deviating from the line of social and Christian virtue, Paleologus displayed a valor and magnanimity which made him not only equal but even superior to the perils which surrounded him; and, whilst he stood almost alone upon the ruins of his falling empire, he seemed still to bid defiance to his implacable foe.

As the virtuous emperor could not banish from his mind the sad apprehension that the day of wo was approaching, he resolved to make an additional sacrifice of his personal feelings for the preservation of his people. He offered the sultan the payment of any tribute that might be exacted, provided the possession of the imperial city should be secured to the Greeks; but as Mahomet absolutely required the surrender of Constantinople in exchange for some principality, Constantine nobly rejectedthe degrading proposal, and preferred a glorious death.

Mahomet himself was not free from uneasiness with regard to the final result of the war; and he had reason to fear that it might eventually turn against himself, as his troops, dispirited by their losses and by the obstinate resistance of the Greeks, loudly called for the cessation of so bloody and perilous a siege. But the undaunted sultan revived their spirits by promising them all the treasures of Constantinople, should they prove successful in their next attack upon that city. The assault was to take place on the twenty-ninth of May. At dusk, on the eve of the day appointed, the soldiers were commanded to assemble, each with a lighted torch at the extremity of his lance or cimeter; Mahomet appeared in the midst of them, renewed his promise, and, to render it more sacred, swore by *the eternity of God, by four thousand prophets, by the soul of his father Amurat, his own children, and his sword;* upon which all exclaimed: "God is God, and Mahomet is his prophet." When this warlike ceremony was over, the sultan ordered a profound silence to be observed throughout the camp; and nothing then was heard round Constantinople but the low murmurs of an army silently preparing for a terrible and decisive assault.

In the imperial city, the garrison was attentively watching from the ramparts all the movements of the Turks. Their repeated shouts had been heard with anxiety and alarm; the terror was increased by the sudden silence which ensued, and the light of innumerable torches in the camp being reflected by the tops of the towers and by the steeples of churches in the town, rendered still more gloomy, from the contrast, the darkness which covered the other parts of Constantinople. Paleologus assembled his chief warriors, and addressed them in a moving speech, exhorting them to encounter fearlessly the approaching peril. He recommended presence of mind to the officers, obedience to the soldiers, intrepidity to all, and spoke so feelingly as to draw tears from every one of his hearers; they embraced each other as if for the last time; and, after they had separated, the emperor went to pray and receive communion in the church of St. Sophia. He afterwards visited the imperial palace, gave his orders, and asked pardon of all persons there present for the faults which he might have committed in the government of his people; every one answered only by his sighs and tears. He then went out overwhelmed with affliction, but still generous and intrepid, and mounting on horseback, visited all the ramparts, examined the different posts of the garrison, and finally resumed his own station, the most perilous of all.

The last day of the Greek empire had now arrived. At one o'clock in the morning, the clarions and trumpets resounded in the Turkish camp; Mahomet gave the signal for the assault, and no fewer than two hundred and sixty thousand soldiers began to storm the city of Constantine; at day-break, all the troops on each side were engaged in the conflict. The shock was furious, especially at two points; but it was every where sustained with undaunted bravery. The Turks, animated by their usual wild fanaticism, by the exhortations of Mahomet, by the hope of victory and the expectation of pillage, forced their way, with a sort of phrensy, through guns and pikes; nor were they deterred either by the difficult access of the breach, or by the sight of their companions falling dead around them whilst endeavoring to scale the wall with ladders. Reckless of life, they sought only to reach their opponents, and to strike them down with their murderous weapons, while destructive missiles were incessantly thrown from their engines. But, if they dealt destruction among the besieged, their own numbers were thinned by death in its most terrible forms. Besides repeated and successful discharges of musketry, the soldiers of the garrison poured upon the thick battalions of the Turks streams of boiling oil, melted wax, and Grecian fire, and from the top of the wall threw rocks and mill-stones, which crushed all that came in their way. A considerable portion of the battlements and several towers having been demolished by the battering rams and artillery, the noble defenders of Constantinople presented themselves as a new rampart much more difficult to be overthrown than that built of inanimate materials. The emperor fought at their head, and set every one an example of the most intrepid courage; numbers of barbarians were mowed down by the edge of his sword; and the very sight of the imperial banner struck terror into the enemy.

After a tremendous contest of two hours, Mahomet advanced with the choicest of his troops and a body of ten thousand Janizaries. He appeared in the midst of them with a club in his hand, animating his troops by his fierce countenance, and pointing out to them the parts of the wall which they were to attack. Behind this band stood other bodies of troops destined to support the assailants, to stop those who might be tempted to fly, and force them to return to the charge. The sound of the clarions, the clashing of the swords and cimeters, the discharges of the artillery, the crash of the falling ramparts, all contributed to render the assault a scene of horror more easily imagined than described. In this awful tumult, the Janizaries themselves began to fight with some confusion; and Paleologus, who had perceived the circumstance, was exhorting his brave attendants to make a last and decisive effort, when a fatal circumstance suddenly changed the aspect of the battle. General Justiniani having received a wound, retired, in order to have it dressed. The Genoese and other auxiliary troops, deprived of the presence of their commander-in-chief, began to waver, and, imitating his example, withdrew from the conflict. In vain did Constantine endeavor to rally them. Finding it impossible to save his empire, he determined to fall with it, and to die as became an emperor. For some moments more, he maintained the unequal contest, saw his last companions perish by his side, and at length overpowered by numbers, fell among the foremost of the slain.

Constantinople was now irretrievably left a prey to wild and barbarous conquerors. The weak remains of its garrison were dispersed; Justiniani had retired to a distant spot, where he shortly after expired. Amidst the inconceivable tumult and desolation that reigned every where, the Turks rushed into the city, and, in virtue of the sultan's promise, plundered it during three days. About forty thousand of its unfortunate inhabitants were put to the sword, and sixty thousand detained as captives. Among those who had the happiness to escape, many fled to the western parts of Europe, where, having established their residence, they greatly concurred in reviving the fine arts, polite literature, and a relish for the study of oriental languages.

Thus, as the *Western empire*, which had been founded by *Augustus*, expired under *Augustulus;* so the *Eastern empire*, which had been founded by a *Constantine*, was extinguished under another *Constantine*, eleven hundred and twenty-three years after the building of Constantinople. Gradually stripped of its extensive possessions, it had long continued to subsist, at least within the precincts of its capital, like a majestic pillar which supports the last arch of a decaying edifice. It fell at length under the repeated attacks of the barbarians, and its downfall afforded to the world a new evidence of this truth, that nothing is unchangeable which has been established by men, and that the works of God alone remain forever.

MAHOMET II CONTINUED.

As soon as order and tranquillity began to succeed the awful scenes of bloodshed, plunder and destruction, which attended the capture of Constantinople, Mahomet left his camp, and took solemn possession of this unhappy city which his efforts had finally subdued. By evincing a certain moderation towards the vanquished, and adopting some other measures of policy, he succeeded in retaining within the town the sad remnant of its inhabitants, or in supplying the absence of those who had perished; and from that time, the former capital of the Greek empire became the chief city of the Turkish dominions. The sultan then examined what country he should next add to his vast monarchy, the measure of his ambition being to acknowledge no measure. Unfortunately for the neighboring princes, the long duration of his reign enabled him to attack them all in succession. Either by fraud and stratagem, or by violence and open war, he succeeded so far in his mighty schemes of conquest, as to destroy another empire (Trebisond), subdue twelve kingdoms, and capture more than two hundred cities.

Mahomet failed however in his attempt to establish a universal empire, which was the great aim of his ambition. At the time when he assumed the most threatening attitude, Divine Providence had already raised up three illustrious generals to check his progress, and save Europe from his destructive sway.

§ I. MAHOMET II AND HUNNIADES.—A. D. 1453—1456.

THE first of these was John Corvinus Hunniades, prince of Transylvania and governor of Hungary, who had previously distinguished himself by his splendid exploits against Amurat II. Although he lost the battle of Warna in 1444, his name continued to be so formidable to the infidels, that the Turkish women made use of it to frighten their little children, and the mere rumor of his approach at the head of an army, almost raised the siege of Constantinople. After the fall of that capital, the hopes of Christian Europe chiefly rested upon him, and his sword was in reality its principal defence against the attacks of Mahomet.

Belgrade, a considerable and well fortified town at the confluence of the Danube and of the Save, had been for some time an object of particular envy for the Ottomans. In June 1456, it was invested by an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men, whom the sultan led in person, and by a fleet so numerous that the vessels covered the two rivers. The soldiers of the garrison bravely maintained their position, and, until the middle of July, withstood with indomitable valor all the efforts of the assailants; still, the place, thus closely besieged and battered day and night by a formidable artillery, was in imminent danger of being reduced by famine or by storm, when the banners of Hunniades, who was hastening to its assistance, appeared waving upon the summits of the surrounding mountains, and his fleet at the same time appeared sailing down the Danube. This great man did not hesitate, with raw and half-disciplined troops, to attack the whole Turkish fleet, which obstructed his passage. The shock was so furious, the resistance so obstinate, and the slaughter so great, that the waters of the Danube seemed changed into blood. At length, the line of the Turks being broken, several of their gallies were captured; the others withdrew; and the conquerors entered the town, amidst the loud acclamations of the inhabitants, who hailed the arrival of Hunniades among them as the sure sign of their approaching deliverance.

Still, the danger was not yet past. The sultan, far from being dispirited, with redoubled energy caused the walls of Belgrade to be so furiously and so incessantly battered, as to render their further reparation impossible. No sooner was the breach sufficiently wide, than the Turks rushed to the assault, and in order to divide the forces of the besieged, applied ladders to many places at once; they however advanced but little on that day. After having reposed during the night, the attack was renewed with still greater fury than before. In a few moments, so fierce was the conflict, that the combatants were mixed together sometimes upon the breach, sometimes within the town itself, the Christians and the Turks alternately obtaining the advantage. During this long period of awful suspense, Hunniades proved himself both a general and a soldier; throwing himself into the thickest part of the battle, he slew, or wounded and dispersed all within his reach; while on the side of the Turks, Mahomet was seen in the midst of the Janizaries, venting his anger, foaming with rage, cursing his soldiers and even heaven itself.

It was thus that boldness and the hope of victory, well regulated valor and desperate courage, exhibited the whole day a frightful scene of carnage, and produced a variety of exploits which it would be impossible to enumerate. It will suffice here to mention one of them, which really deserves particular notice. A Hungarian soldier, of common rank, but of heroic sentiments, saw a Turk ascend to the top of a tower, where he began to plant his banner with the view of driving the Christians to despondency, by making them believe that the city was already taken. Without losing an instant, he hastened after the Turk, and strove to wrest the banner from him; finding himself unable to effect his purpose, he seized the Turk, and, with the strength of despair, dragged him along with himself from the top of the tower, and by his death averted impending ruin from the Christians.

At this moment, Kasan, the bravest of the Turks, was struck dead near Mahomet, and the Janizaries began to waver and retire from the bloody conflict. The sultan, by threats and promises, endeavored but in vain to rally his dispirited soldiers; being himself wounded by an arrow, and having lost the use of his senses, he was carried away from the field of battle, where the slaughter of the Turks continued until the remains of their army escaped by flight. There were found in the camp which they hastily abandoned, about two hundred pieces of heavy artillery, forty colors, and an incredible quantity of ammunition, baggage, splendid tents, and other valuable objects. The battle had lasted, it is said, twenty hours, and was the severest check that the Ottomans had received during the long reign of Mahomet. When the sultan, after having recovered his senses, was informed of the extent of his disaster, he was with difficulty prevented from killing himself in despair. Nor was this a transient or momentary impression; as long as he lived, he could not think of Belgrade, without falling into a paroxysm of madness.

Hunniades did not long survive this glorious event; only five weeks later, a violent fever, occasioned chiefly by the fatigues of the last campaign and by the infection of the Turkish camp, carried him off on the tenth of September, 1456. Being attended in his last moments by St. John Capistran, his faithful admirer and friend, whose eloquent exhortations had greatly contributed to the victory of Belgrade, he died, as he had lived, with the pious and noble sentiments of a Christian hero, after having caused himself to be carried to the church for the purpose of receiving the Holy Viaticum, "it being proper," he said, "that the servant should go to his Lord, rather than that the Lord should come to his servant." The death of this great man, the news of which was rapidly spread, again brought over Europe that gloom which his victory had dispelled. Pope Calixtus III, on being apprized of the sad event, shed an abundance of tears; and Mahomet himself is said to have exclaimed in a melancholy tone: "Never was there a greater general in the world; and now that he is dead, there is none whose overthrow could be a sufficient compensation for my defeat." This, however, was not strictly exact; and Mahomet deceived himself, if, without considering Matthias Corvinus, who, like his father, inflicted severe defeats on the Turks, he did not look upon Scanderbeg as an opponent worthy of him, and at least equal to Hunniades.

§ II. Mahomet II and Scanderbeg. (1464—1467).

Scanderbeg, otherwise called Georges Castriot, was king of Albania, a rough and mountainous district situated on the eastern coast of the Adriatic sea. In the beginning of his reign (1443), he vigorously shook off the yoke laid by the Ottomans on his father and country, and, with a handful of warriors, maintained his position against their innumerable armies during the space of twenty-four years.

Amurat II, who attacked him first, soon experienced the effects of his undaunted valor; and having presumed to besiege Croja, the capital city of Albania, met there, in Scanderbeg who defended it, an invincible opponent, no armor however strong, no warrior how brave soever, being able to resist this hero. During the whole siege, the Turks were continually harassed by sallies and skirmishes conducted with equal vigor and ability. Their loss, both before the walls of Croja and during their retreat, was so great, and their defeats so signal and so ignominious, that the grief of Amurat on this occasion is thought to have accelerated his death.

The war continued under Mahomet II, who contented himself in the beginning with sending many of his generals against the Albanians; but Scanderbeg knew so well how to avail himself of his perfect knowledge of the country, of its mountains and defiles, that he repeatedly routed the Turks, notwithstanding their superior forces. On several of these occasions, they lost from twenty to thirty thousand men. At length (towards the year 1464), the sultan determined to go and avenge in person so many defeats; having raised one of those formidable armies with which he had so often visited the neighboring states, he invaded the Albanian territory at the head of two hundred thousand men. Scanderbeg had not more than a handful of soldiers with him; still, the Turks were again repeatedly defeated, Croja was once more saved from their yoke, and Mahomet was compelled to retire with disappointment and shame.

The time was now come for Scanderbeg to exchange earthly laurels for a heavenly crown, the reward of his piety and of the valor which he displayed in the defence of religion. He was taken dangerously ill in the city of Lissa; and, aware that his last hour was approaching, he prepared for it, with his usual magnanimity and fortitude, in the most edifying manner. The last spark of life was about to be extinguished, when information was brought that fifteen thousand Turks had reentered his territory, and were at a short distance; at this news, he seemed to recover his former strength and warlike ardor, looked for his sword, and giving his orders to the little army which always accompanied him, waited for the result of the battle, until, hearing the glad sounds of victory, he fell back upon his bed and calmly expired, at the age of sixty-three, on the seventeenth of January, 1467. His death proved an irreparable misfortune for his faithful subjects, who, deprived of their invincible leader, could no longer resist the overwhelming forces of the Ottomans. Hence nothing could be more just and proper than the deep and general affliction caused by the loss of this hero; even his charger is said to have shed tears over him, and, by refusing to take his food, to have died of grief three days after his noble and justly lamented master. The Turks themselves, to whom he had been so formidable an enemy during life, were not the least zealous in honoring his memory. They not only touched his coffin with a kind of religious veneration, but having obtained some parcels of his bones, had them enshrined in silver or gold, to be carried in battles, as a sure pledge, they imagined, of safety and victory.

There indeed appeared in Scanderbeg something almost above human nature; and it is certain that very few generals were ever equal to him in firmness of mind, strength of body, heroic valor and brilliant success. He gained twenty-two victories over the Ottomans, whilst they were in the height of their power and under the most terrible of their sultans; and having, with his own sword, slain about two thousand of them in different engagements, he was but once slightly wounded. Mahomet, imagining that there was perhaps something extraordinary and marvellous in his cimeter, desired to see it; but not having found the famous weapon what he expected it to be, returned it with a sort of contempt. "I sent my cimeter to the sultan," said the Albanian prince, "but not the hand which knows how to wield it in battle."

Nearly the whole life of Scanderbeg was a series of wonderful actions, the offspring of the noblest feelings. He not only displayed the intrepidity of a warrior, and the talents of a consummate general, but also practised the social and Christian virtues in a high degree of perfection. Most historians represent him as the mildest of men; and yet, such was the struggle within him, whenever he met with great opposition, that his lower lip would split and bleed; whence we may conclude that, as he was naturally much inclined to anger, his great mildness must have been the effect of a sublime virtue, and of an extraordinary violence which he offered to himself. This self control, united with the highest degree of military heroism, ought to excite universal admiration for Scanderbeg, and moreover convince every one that the spirit of the true religion, instead of debasing the soul and weakening its energy, as some impious men falsely assert, is, on the contrary, the source of the purest sentiments and noblest actions of which man is capable. Besides the striking examples of Scanderbeg and Hunniades, another evidence of this truth will be seen in the illustrious Peter d'Aubusson, who was also raised up by the Almighty as a rampart to his people, against the invading power of Mahomet.

§ III. Mahomet II and Peter D'Aubusson.

(1476—1481.)

The sultan was incensed against the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, for the severe losses which they daily inflicted on his commerce, navy, and maritime provinces. The storm was now preparing to burst upon them; and the Grand-Master, Peter d'Aubusson, had scarcely completed his preparations to oppose a vigorous resistance, when, in the spring of the year 1480, the island of Rhodes, the principal residence of the order, was attacked by a fleet of one hundred and sixty vessels, and one hundred thousand men destined to fight on land. That powerful armament at once directed all its efforts against the capital city of the island, whose walls were, during three months, battered by pieces of ordnance similar to those which had destroyed the ramparts of Constantinople. But all this proved no match for Peter d'Aubusson and his intrepid knights; besides their cannons, they used against the Ottoman artillery a formidable engine, which, by violently hurling enormous stones and fragments of rocks, caused frightful ravages in the camp of the besiegers. Scarcely a day passed without an assault from the Turks or a sally from the garrison; and in every engagement the advantage, although without a decisive result, was on the side of the Rhodians.

As the wall, however, had been, in many parts, thrown down by the continual firing of the cannon, the commander of the Turkish army, Bashaw Misach Paleologus, a Greek renegado, led his troops to a general assault. He indeed conducted it with great ability and bravery; but, to his great disappointment, the defence was not less vigorous than the attack. The Grand-Master displayed on this occasion a presence of mind, a magnanimity and courage seldom equalled, never surpassed. Neither the combined efforts of twelve Janizaries who fell desperately upon him during the conflict, nor excess of fatigue, nor five large wounds which he received, could induce him to withdraw for a single moment from the perilous post which his valor had selected. So noble an example inspired his knights with fresh ardor; all seemed transformed into so many undaunted heroes, anxious to save their magnanimous prince, or to perish with him on the field of battle. After a tremendous fight, the assailants were repulsed, at all points, from the breach, and leaving several thousand slain around the walls of the city, they fled to their vessels and reembarked in terror and despair.

The Grand-Master, covered with his own blood and with that of his enemies, was conveyed to his palace, where his wounds were dressed. He happily recovered in a short time; and as soon as he was able to walk, repaired to the church to give solemn thanks to the God of hosts for the splendid victory which he had gained. His next care was to bestow rewards on those of his soldiers and knights who had evinced the greatest courage in the time of danger; and, in order to give proper relief to the poor inhabitants of the country whose property had been laid waste by the Turks, he generously maintained them until the following harvest, and relieved them for many years from the taxes which they paid before the invasion. It was in those and the like laudable occupations that P. d'Aubusson spent the remainder of his life. When he felt himself attacked by a mortal disease, he was not in the least disturbed at the sight of approaching death, but encountered it on the bed of sickness with the same tranquillity with which he had so often faced it amidst the greatest perils of war. He died at the age of eighty, justly venerated and esteemed throughout the whole world as one of the most illustrious Grand-Masters of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, one of the ablest generals of his age, the delight and pattern of his fellow-knights, the father of the poor, the deliverer of Rhodes, the sword and shield of Christendom, a model as well of sincere piety as of intrepid valor.

Far different was the sultan of the Turks. This haughty monarch had been exasperated by the disaster of his army in the island of Rhodes, and in his fury he swore vengeance against the Christians. The city of Otranto, on the shore of the Adriatic, being already occupied by his troops, who had taken and plundered it in August 1480, extraordinary preparations were commenced for fresh invasions, and new calamities threatened Italy, Rhodes and other states, when a violent disease suddenly put an end to both the life and the projects of the Mussulman Attila

(A. D. 1481). He had reigned thirty and lived about fifty-two years. The Turks, on account of his talents and extensive conquests, place him in the first rank of their sovereigns; Gibbon and Voltaire praise him as a magnanimous prince; but all who know that there is no true greatness without virtue, and are aware of the many acts of insatiable ambition, perfidiousness and barbarity with which the whole of Mahomet's life was sullied, cannot but consider him as a scourge of humanity and a very monster. Dissensions which arose between his sons, and engaged all their attention, left that part of Europe in peace for many years.

CONTEST OF THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK IN ENGLAND.—A. D. 1455—1485.

England, although not attacked by foreign enemies, still continued in a state of considerable agitation, the causes and progress of which will now be more fully related. King Henry VI was a prince of virtuous disposition and inoffensive character, but had always exhibited great weakness of mind in his government, and such a want of resolution as encouraged some of his relatives to endeavor to deprive him of his crown. At their head was Richard, duke of York, the first prince of the blood, who, by his mother, stood one degree nearer to the throne than the reigning house of Lancaster; he possessed those talents which render the leader of a party extremely dangerous, and exercised great influence over the principal nobility of England.

Unfortunately, at this time, there existed great discontent against the court, on account of the ill success of the last war in France for the recovery of Guienne. The artful duke was careful to encourage the public opinion, at first secretly, afterwards more openly, as soon as circumstances permitted him to do so without peril. At length, he raised troops, for the purpose, he said, of reforming the government; and boldly taking the field, defeated the royalists at St. Albans, and took the king prisoner (A. D. 1455). This circumstance, still more than the victory itself, served admirably well the ambitious views of Richard, and enabled him, in leaving to his royal captive the insignia of royalty, to assume with impunity the government of the realm.

The battle of St. Albans was the first in that awful and unnatural struggle, which armed the rival houses of Lancaster and York against each other, made Great Britain one extensive theatre of atrocities, was signalized by twelve pitched battles, cost the lives of more than a hundred thousand men with eighty princes of the blood, and almost completely annihilated the ancient nobility of England. It was prolonged by the obstinate valor of both parties, and by the great ability of their leaders. Besides Duke Richard, the chief commanders of the Yorkists were his son Edward, whose military skill was superior even to that of his father, and, during a certain time, the intrepid earl of Warwick, surnamed *the maker and the destroyer of kings.* The real head of the Lancastrians was queen Margaret, a princess of masculine courage and wonderful constancy, which she displayed in the most distressing circumstances that can perhaps ever befall a queen, a wife and a mother.

This fatal and sanguinary contest is well known under the denomination of *the two roses*, from the *white rose*, the distinctive badge of the house of York, and the *red rose*, that of the Lancastrian family. Various were the alternations of success; and king Henry VI frequently passed from the state of a sovereign to that of a captive, and again changed his prison for the throne. His partisans seemed to prevail in 1460, when, being strongly upheld by the queen, they gained at Wakefield a signal victory against the duke of York, who, with many of his followers, lost his life in the conflict. But this success of the royal cause was not of long duration. Prince Edward not only retrieved the losses and fully repaired the defeat of his party, but even marched to London and caused himself to be proclaimed king without further delay. Returning to the northern counties, he overtook the Lancastrians near Towton, and completely defeated them, after a tremendous and most obstinate conflict, which cost the lives of thirty-eight thousand combatants (A. D. 1461).

This battle was decisive against the royalists. The unfortunate Henry fled to Scotland for refuge; but his queen and son had to encounter very strange adventures. On one occasion, as the young prince and his mother were crossing a mountainous district, they were surprised by a troop of banditti, who stripped them of their money, jewels and other articles of value. It is probable that they concealed their quality; otherwise, such distinguished captives would have been more carefully guarded. The ruffians began to quarrel about the division of the booty; menaces were uttered, and swords drawn; when Margaret, watching her opportunity, grasped her son by the arm, and plunged into the thickest part of the wood. She had not proceeded far, when another robber made his appearance. The queen, with the intrepidity of despair, advanced to meet him, and taking young Edward by the hand, "Friend," said she, "I intrust to you the son of your king." These words so moved the robber, that he took them both under his protection, and conducted them to a place of safety.

How desperate soever the cause of the red rose might now appear, the courage and the spirit of Margaret were not yet subdued. Indefatigable in her exertions, she repeatedly crossed the sea, in order to obtain foreign assistance, and often reappeared at the head of her partisans in England. Her hopes were cheered by a temporary gleam of success, particularly in the year 1470, when, by the secession of the earl of Warwick from the Yorkist to the Lancastrian side, and by the sudden, though momentary flight of king Edward, Henry VI was once more replaced upon the British throne. But no later than the following year 1471, the fatal battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury for ever blasted the fruit of so many efforts. The unfortunate monarch again fell into the hands of his implacable enemies, was again recommitted to the tower, and shortly after deprived of life. His royal consort, and his son, then eighteen years of age, being now destitute of all resources, were also taken prisoners. The young prince was immediately led to the conqueror's tent; and, having been asked the reason of his appearance at the head of an army, replied with equal boldness and candor: "To preserve my father's crown and my own inheritance." Edward, enraged at this answer, brutally struck him on the face with his gauntlet; and the assistants imitating his barbarity despatched him with their swords. As to Margaret, after having supported to the end the cause of the Lancastrian family, and having outlived her fortune, her friends, her husband and her son, she was ransomed for fifty thousand crowns, and died in France a few years after.

Edward IV remained in the undisturbed possession of the English crown; but, after his death, which happened A. D. 1483, dissensions again disturbed the peace of the royal family. Of his two next successors, Edward V, his son, and Richard III, his brother, the former was dethroned, imprisoned and put to death by the latter, a faithless and ferocious prince, who did not long enjoy the fruit of his detestable ambition. Notwithstanding all the precautions of his artful and tyrannical policy, a strong party was formed in favor of another rival, Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, member of the house of Lancaster by a collateral and female line. A single battle fought at Bosworth in the year 1485, decided the important quarrel; Richard lost his life, and the victorious army presently proclaimed his rival king of England, under the name o Henry VII. The title of this prince was afterwards confirmed by an act of parliament; and his marriage with Elizabeth the heiress of the house of York, uniting together the claims of both families, put an end to the protracted feuds of the Plantagenets, and to the civil war which had deluged England with blood during the space of thirty years.

FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.—FINAL OVERTHROW OF THE MOORS IN SPAIN.—A. D. 1479—1492.

At this period, Isabella, princess of Castile, who succeeded her brother Henry IV on the throne in 1474, was united in marriage with Ferdinand of Arragon, who inherited the crown of his father Juan II, in 1479. This marriage permanently cemented the chief states of Christian Spain in one extensive empire. The Spanish monarchy became thus, almost on a sudden, more respectable and powerful than it had been ever since the flourishing times of the Visigoths. This however was owing less perhaps to the fortunate union of the two crowns in one family, than to the uncommon ability and perfect accord with which Ferdinand and Isabella governed their dominions. By vigorous enactments and still more vigorous measures, they checked the torrent of disorders and crimes to which the preceding civil wars had given rise; destroyed the castles and fortresses from which restless lords issued forth to infest all the country round; revoked the grant of gratuities, which exhausted the public treasury; rescued the people from the oppression of the nobles; and subjected the nobles themselves to the control of their royal authority. It was at this epoch (A. D. 1480) that they established in Spain the famous and, we may add, the *so much* and yet *so little* known tribunal of the Inquisition.*

In the mean time, the Moors having, notwithstanding the existing truce, imprudently recommenced hostilities, Isabella and Ferdinand conceived the just and glorious design of annihilating their power in the peninsula. Hitherto, these sworn enemies of the Christian name had maintained themselves in the southern provinces, and, though they had gradually lost an immense portion of their territory, still remained masters of the flourishing kingdom of Granada, which contained a number of fortified places and three millions of inhabitants. But the time had now come, when, after a struggle of nearly eight centuries between the Moors and the Christians, they were to be stripped of this last possession in Spain. The two sovereigns skilfully took advantage of the imprudent step ot the Mussulmans and of the bloody factions which began to prevail among their princes; they declared war against them, and prosecuted it with vigor. During the space of eight years (1482—1490), the different towns and fortresses of the kingdom of Granada fell successively into the hands of the Castilians; and there remained, in 1491, only its capital to be subdued.

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* See Note B.

This was, it is true, a very difficult and perilous attempt. Two powerful fortresses, a thousand towers, walls of a prodigious size, and thirty thousand warriors defended this superb capital, the last possession of the Moors in Spain. But all these obstacles did not deter Ferdinand and Isabella from pursuing their favorite plan with wonderful activity; and Granada was invested by a gallant army of fifty thousand men, whom the presence of their sovereigns stimulated with unconquerable ardor, patience and constancy. In that siege, the Spaniards neither made use of artillery nor attempted an assault, their only object being to reduce the city by famine, and repel the sallies of the garrison. During six months, the spot between Granada and the Spanish camp was a theatre of almost continual skirmishes, and innumerable exploits were performed by the knights of both parties; but never could the Moors bring their opponents to a general engagement. Ferdinand was too prudent to expose the issue of an expedition in which he was nearly certain of success, to the hazard of a battle: he contented himself with protecting his troops by solid entrenchments; and then, to let the Moors fully understand his fixed determination to conquer Granada, he built, at the suggestion of Isabella, in the place of the encampment, a regular city with its houses and streets, under the name of *Santa Fé*, a name which it still retains.

The inhabitants of Granada, and Boabdil, their king, were driven to despair when they beheld the unshaken resolution of an enemy who spared neither time, nor expense, nor fatigue, to attain his object. The first pangs of starvation and the fear of still greater evils in future, induced them to enter into a negotiation with the besiegers. Having obtained a truce for two months, during which no opportunity presented itself of averting their impending ruin, they finally consented, under the condition of mild and honorable treatment, to surrender into the hands of the Castilian sovereigns.

Isabella and Ferdinand took possession of Granada in the beginning of the year 1492, after having granted to Boabdil extensive estates and an annual income of fifty thousand ducats in exchange for his kingdom. Notwithstanding these advantages, the unfortunate monarch could not quit his capital without shedding a flood of tears; and when he gazed at it for the last time from the summit of a neighboring hill, he repeatedly exclaimed: "O splendid city! O Lord God of hosts! What misfortunes have ever been equal to mine!" Upon which his mother ironically said to him: "You do well to lament, like a woman, the loss of a kingdom which you did not know how to defend like a man." Being soon disgusted with his new situation, he, after the example of his uncle El Zagal, who had long contended with him for the crown, sold his estates to Ferdinand, and passed over to Africa, where, having lived twenty years longer, he was at last killed in a battle fought by the King of Fez against the sovereign of Morocco.

The other Moors, besides the king and his attendants, had also, with due proportion, obtained valuable advantages from their new sovereigns. By the treaty of peace, they were allowed either to retire to the African continent with their families and riches, or to stay in the peninsula, with privileges scarcely inferior to those enjoyed by the other Spaniards, and such as induced great numbers to remain. Unhappily, the course of time showed their submission not to be very sincere and constant; and experience taught the Spanish government the necessity of adopting severer measures to check their present and hinder their future rebellions. In fine, some proofs having been obtained that they were planning a general insurrection, about the year 1609, they were expelled from the Spanish territories, by an edict of king Philip III, those only being excepted who had become sincere Christians, and whose descendants still subsist in the southern districts of Spain.

The wonderful abilities of Isabella and Ferdinand had founded on a permanent basis the greatness of the Spanish monarchy; by the conquest of Granada it was raised to an eminent degree of splendor; and, within a few years, a variety of other successful events gave it that mighty preponderance which it enjoyed in Europe during this and the two following reigns.

REMARKS ON THE DISCOVERIES MADE DURING THE SIXTH PERIOD OF MODERN HISTORY.

Before we quit this period, we will make some remarks on the important discoveries in which it abounds.

The celebrated Roger Bacon, an Englishman, who flourished towards the end of the thirteenth century, is said to have prepared the way for the invention of gun-powder;

but the invention itself is more generally ascribed to Schwartz, a German, who lived at the same time, or shortly after. The use of that tremendous composition produced a material change in military tactics; cannon and musketry gradually taking the place of bows, catapults, balisters, battering rams, and other warlike engines. During the course of the fifteenth century, the application of artillery to the different parts of warfare, sieges, naval combats, etc., became general among civilized nations; and it is a remarkable fact that, ever since that time, battles have been less cruel and bloody than they were during the foregoing ages.*

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* We do not read or hear of any combat having been, ever since the universal adoption of gun-powder, half so bloody as many were before, v. g. the battles of Ancyra (A. D. 1402), Tarifa (1340), Murandal (1212), Tours (732), Chalons (451), all which have been mentioned in this history; and, in more remote ages, the battles of Arbela (B. C. 331), Platea (B. C. 479), each of which cost the lives of nearly three hundred thousand Persians; and particularly the awful fight of the kings of Juda and Israel, Abia and Jeroboam (B. C. 958), in which, according to the unexceptionable account of the sacred writer, there fell, on the part of the Israelites alone, five hundred thousand men slain or wounded (II Paral. xiii. 17); whereas, in the most tremendous and decisive battles of latter times, v. g. Austerlitz, Leipzic, Waterloo, the loss of the vanquished did not exceed thirty or forty thousand.

Reason itself, if we reflect ever so little, confirms our general assertion concerning the great difference to be remarked between recent and ancient battles. It is manifest, all other circumstances being equal, that armies fighting at a distance with cannon and musketry, are not exposed to so shocking a mode of spilling blood, nor to such cruel animosity, nor to such terrible destruction, as when fighting hand to hand with swords, spears and battle-axes. For, in the first case, besides the length of time required to fix the batteries, and the vast number of shots which miss their object, if either of the two armies begins to suffer too severely, it may, generally speaking, avoid all further danger of destruction, by retiring beyond the reach of the enemy's guns—in the second case, the hostile troops being frequently within the reach of the sword, and, as it were, mingled together, a dreadful slaughter must unavoidably follow, both during the regular fight, and also after it, owing to the closeness of the pursuit.

To these facts and reflections we cannot reasonably oppose the frightful disaster of the French army in Russia (A. D. 1812), because it was the effect of a whole campaign, not of a single battle, and of intense cold, want of food, and the crossing of difficult rivers, more than of the Russian cannon. The only plausible objection perhaps that can be made against our view of the subject, is, that gun-powder being a powerful means of destruction added to those which already existed, must consequently be reckoned a real and very great evil—but it should

In 1410, painting in oil was invented at Bruges, by John Van-Eyck.

To the year 1417 is referred by some the useful invention of making paper from linen rags.

A still more important invention was that of the art of printing, the authors of which, according to the more common opinion of learned men, were Faust, Schœffer and Guttemberg, at Mentz, about the year 1440.* It was soon followed by engraving and etching in copper.

Towards 1470 post-horses were established by King Louis XI.

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also be remarked that it is rather a means which has superseded others still worse, more cruel, more bloody, and more dreafully murderous, both in public wars and in private quarrels; and, since there have always been, and unfortunately always will be quarrels among individuals, and wars among nations, we are authorized to conclude that the invention of gun-powder, instead of being a great misfortune, as is commonly imagined, has been, on the contrary, a real and valuable service rendered to humanity

* The first printers carried their types about in bags, and printed small pamphlets, letters, etc. in noblemen's houses. The first entire book issued from their press, was the Psalter in Latin, printed at Mentz A. D. 1457, of which there are yet two copies extant, one in the imperial library at Vienna in Austria; the other was bought by King Louis XVIII for the sum of 12,000 francs. A complete edition of the Bible in Latin, a copy of which was purchased by the same king for 20,000 francs, came out in two folio vols., also at Mentz, A. D. 1462. From that epoch, the progress of typography was so rapid, that, even before the close of the fifteenth century, a variety of editions of the Bible, and an incredible number of other useful books, were published in the different parts of Europe.

It is certain that the art of printing, by removing for ever the evil of the scarcity of books, has been highly conducive to the greater diffusion of religious truth and literary instruction; but, alas! it has also become a powerful vehicle of error, incredulity, sophisms, immorality, infamous and slanderous tales, etc., so apt are men to abuse the very best things which lie within their reach. Indeed, what can be more deplorable than to see the vast number of irreligious, impious, and scandalous productions of every kind and every size, with which the world is deluged? However, since the abuse of any valuable art or object does not detract from its intrinsic value, the application of the art of printing to matters of this description cannot be a sufficient motive to inveigh against the art considered in itself, and we ought rather gratefully to consider it as a gift of Divine Providence, intended to be, as it really has been, one of the chief instruments towards completing the revival of science and letters, and securing the triumph of the true religion over error and infidelity.

In fine, the last years of this age were signalized by the discovery of America, and that of the passage of the Cape of Good Hope to the East Indies; two events of paramount importance, an account of which belongs to the seventh part of Modern History.

PART VII.

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA (A. D. 1492), TO THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES OR PARIS, IN WHICH THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES WAS SOLEMNLY AND UNIVERSALLY ACKNOWLEDGED (A. D. 1783).

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS ON AMERICA.

It is a well founded opinion that America was known to some among the nations of antiquity, particularly the Egyptians and Carthaginians. Besides the mention made by Plato, in his dialogues, and the description ascribed to Solon, of the great island Atlantis, whose existence and identity with the American continent may be called in question; there is in Seneca's *Medea* a passage showing that the ancients had truly the notion of an extensive portion of the world, which, though separated from them by the ocean, might be discovered in aftertimes.* Above all, a very ancient author, who is commony supposed to be Aristotle, expressly affirms that the Carthaginians, in one of their maritime excursions, discovered a vast and beautiful land, far beyond the straits of Hercules (Gibraltar); but that the senate, for fear of depopulating the republic, forbade other ships to go thither, and endeavored to suppress the notice of the discovery.†

* Venient annis secula seris,
Quibus oceanus vincula rerum
Laxet, et ingens pateat tellus,
Tethysque novos detegat orbes,
Nec erit terris ultima Thule.—*Medea, Act* II. *l.* 375.

† See, on this interesting subject, *Univers. Hist. vol.* XXX. *p.* 142—186, and *vol.* CXIV. *p.* 5 *of the Introduct. to the History of America*;—also *Bible Vengée de* Duclot, *vol.* I, *Observations préliminaires*;—Dr. Wiseman, *Lectures on the connexion between science and revealed religion, p.* 82—86.

Whatever may be said on this point, the population of America itself and its descent from the inhabitants of the old world, form no longer a difficulty among learned men, and are satisfactorily accounted for in many different ways.

The first is that of a regular and bold navigation, by steering either westward from the coasts of Africa through the Atlantic, like the Carthaginians, several of whom, according to the ancient author just quoted, remained in the fertile and extensive country which they had discovered—or from the northwest of Europe, through Greenland—or from the eastern shores of Asia, v. g. from China and Japan, by the long and almost uninterrupted series of islands in the Pacific Ocean. This seems chiefly to have been the course followed by the ancestors of the Peruvians and Mexicans; for, besides the wise conjectures of Hornius in his work *de Origine Gent. American.* and the solid proofs adduced by Mr. de Guisgnes in the *History of the Huns* and *Researches on the Chinese navigation;* there exists so striking a coincidence of monuments, hieroglyphic figures, strange customs, and arbitrary signs for the computation of time, between the Peruvians and Mexicans on one side, and the Egyptians, Thibetians, Moguls and Japanese on the other, as to leave no doubt with regard to the identical origin of the nations of both continents, and the direction taken by the migratory colonies in their passage from one country to the other.

A still easier means of communication between the two continents was to cross, with boats in summer, and upon the ice in winter, the narrow strait of Behring, which separates North America from the north-east of Asia. That this means was really resorted to, must appear evident to every one from the innumerable marks of resemblance in color, size, constitution, manners, etc, between the inhabitants of the opposite shores of North America and Asia. Not long since, two learned travellers, Steller and Kracheninnikow, proved this truth to a high degree of certainty in the first volume of the History of Kamtschatka.

In fine, strong winds and tempests have been also justly reckoned among the very probable causes of the population of America, particularly of the eastern parts of South America. How often, during the course of ages, may not ships have been surprised by storms, and driven from the coasts of Europe or Africa to the American shores? Nor is this gratuitously supposed; it seems rather to rest on well authenticated facts. When Alvarez Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, was going from Portugal to the East Indies, in the year 1500, his fleet was hurried by a furious tempest, across the Atlantic, to the coasts of Brazil, of which he took possession in the name of his sovereign; so that the New World would have become known in consequence of this accident, had it not been discovered eight years before by the genius of Columbus. In 1731, a boat carrying six men was driven in the same direction from the Canary islands to the mouth of the river Oronoco; the men were still alive, although nearly starved. Is it not reasonable to believe that similar causes may have occasionally produced similar effects in preceding ages?

Thus is the population of America in its close connexion with the inhabitants of the old world, easily and in many ways explained. But, like many ancient nations shortly after the deluge, most of the American tribes were, at the time of their discovery, totally uncivilized, the only exception found by the Europeans being that of the empires of Mexico and Peru; and even this Mexican and Peruvian civilization was, on several accounts, very imperfect, nor can it be traced back further than three or four centuries. Yet, they had preserved the remembrance of some religious truths, v. g. of the immortality of the soul, and of a deluge which destroyed all mankind except one family who repeopled the earth. This is a new evidence of the identity of origin which links together all the branches of the human family, and of their descent from one common stock, as the Scripture asserts (Wisd. x. 1; Act. Apost. xvii. 26).

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA—CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

A. D. 1492—1506.

The great man whose life connects the history of the ancient continent with that of the new, Christopher Columbus, was born of a wool-comber, at or near Genoa, probably in 1441. From his childhood, he manifested a strong propensity for voyages, and, as soon as he was able, indulged it by partaking in the maritime expeditions of the Genoese his countrymen. In this employment, his natural genius acquired that practical knowledge, that fertility of resource, that undaunted resolution and vigilant self-command for which he was afterwards so remarkable. Success increased his inclination for a nautical career, and existing circumstances gave it a peculiar direction which finally led to the discovery of America.

About this time the Portuguese endeavored to find out a passage to the East Indies by coasting along the shores of Africa. Though they advanced but slowly, their attempts and their discoveries suggested to the mind of Columbus a still bolder idea: the study of both the ancient and recent geographical maps, together with the knowledge of the sphericity of the earth, led him to believe that, by steering directly to the west across the Atlantic, one might easily reach the Asiatic continent. This theory included indeed a partial mistake, in as much as Columbus had not formed a correct estimate of the size of our globe, nor of the distance of the eastern extremity of Asia from the west of Europe; but the principal idea was not, on that account, less worthy of a great and mighty genius.

A variety of circumstances concurred to impress his theory more and more upon his mind. Reeds of an extraordinary size, and such as were said to grow only in India, floated to the Azore islands from the west; pieces of wood carved in an unusual manner, and trees of an unknown species had been lately found drifting from the same quarter; above all, a canoe, driven by westerly winds, had been seen carrying the dead bodies of two men, whose features differed from those of any known race of people. These, and other facts of a like nature, confirmed Columbus in his belief of the existence of undiscovered lands in the west.

Having thus formed his theory, he determined to carry it himself into effect; but this required the cooperation of some princely power, and Columbus had the mortification to see his proposal of the noble undertaking rejected, with more or less contempt, by the republic of Genoa and by the court of Portugal, to which he successively applied. Even in Spain, where he met with a reception more favorable to his views, many years elapsed in a course of fruitless negotiations and repeated disappointments, before obtaining the aid so earnestly desired. Indeed, having already despatched his brother Bartholomew to England, he himself was on the point of departing for France, when, at the representations of some zealous and influential persons, Isabella and Ferdinand at length consented to furnish him with three small vessels, and ninety mariners, who were joined by several private adventurers and servants, making the whole number about one hundred and twenty persons. It was with the help of this weak squadron that Columbus undertook to brave the dangers of unknown seas, in order to execute one of the boldest designs ever conceived.

On the 3d of August, 1492, having, with his officers and crew, prepared himself by religious exercises for the hazardous undertaking, he sailed from the harbor of Palos in Andalusia, under the royal commission which appointed him admiral of the new seas, and viceroy of the lands he was going to discover. He stopped for some weeks at the Canary islands, to repair his vessels and refresh their crews, and then steered directly west. A gentle breeze blowing from the east, speedily wafted them over a tranquil sea; so that, at the end of four weeks more, they had come two thousand two hundred miles. No land however yet appeared; and Columbus had often to struggle against the murmurs and dismay of his companions, who loudly insisted on abandoning the voyage. Some even carried their mutiny so far as to propose in their meetings to throw him into the sea and spread the report that he had fallen overboard while observing the stars with his astronomical instruments. Columbus, in order to pacify their clamors, had to use consummate prudence; he assured them that they would discover the land within the space of three days. That it was not distant he knew from many certain signs: v. g. birds, and fish of such kinds as never go far from the shore, and also green branches, which were seen near the vessels as they advanced. The three days had not elapsed, before land was descried; and, a few hours after, on the 12th of October, the crews disembarked, to the very great surprise of the harmless natives. The land thus discovered was called by its inhabitants *Guanahani*, one of the *Bahama* islands.

It would be difficult to conceive the respect which the Spaniards now manifested for the great man whom they so lately threatened with death; and still more so, to describe the feelings of Columbus himself at the sight of his happy discovery. As a memorial of the termination of those dangers from which he had been rescued, he gave the island the name of *San-Salvador*, and took possession of it for the Castilian sovereigns. Then again putting to sea, he discovered Cuba, and shortly after another extensive and beautiful island called *Hayti*, a name which it has resumed in these latter times, after having been successively called *Hispaniola* and *San-Domingo*. Every where, a fertile soil exhibited to the sight of the Spaniards productions and animals unknown in

Europe. In some places, gold was so abundant that valuable pieces of it were easily obtained for little mirrors, small bells, and other trifles given in exchange; the simple and artless natives setting little value on that metal so much prized by other nations. Struck with astonishment at the dress, color and arms of the Spaniards, they took these new guests for so many supernatural beings descended from the sky, and accordingly received them with all imaginable kindness and respect. As Columbus always supposed that their country was the extremity of Eastern India, he gave them the name of *Indians;* an appellation which, notwithstanding the subsequent acknowledgment of the mistake, the aboriginals of the new world have hitherto retained.

Columbus now thought of returning to Spain, that he might be the first to impart to the sovereigns the news of his success and discoveries. One of his vessels having run aground, he used the remains of the wreck, with the consent of the Indians, to build a fort upon the shores of Hayti, and leaving in it forty of his companions, sailed for Europe in January, 1493. In the middle of the ocean the two remaining vessels were assailed by so furious a tempest, that Columbus, abandoning all hope, wrote a hasty account of his voyage, and, having surrounded the paper with a waxed cloth, put the whole in a cask, which he threw into the sea, hoping that the waves might drive it to the land. Happily, this precaution proved unnecessary; the storm abated, and, on the fifteenth of March, Columbus triumphantly entered the harbor of Palos, from which he had sailed about seven months before.

The fortunate admiral proceeded by land to the court, which was at Barcelona; and, as a specimen of his important discoveries, offered to Isabella and Ferdinand a variety of golden ornaments and productions of the new world. The sovereigns, in return, gave him every mark of regard and esteem, and confirmed his title of admiral and viceroy. After their example, the courtiers and lords seemed to vie with each other in bestowing upon him proofs of personal consideration. As, however, there are never wanting mean characters, jealous of the reputation of others, some persons of this description once publicly told him that, after all, he had not much reason to glory in the discovery of America, some little share of courage and a fortunate chance having been sufficient to bring the attempt to a successful issue. Columbus made no direct reply, but, taking an egg, invited the company to make it stand upon one end. As no one could do this, he struck the egg upon the table, so as to break the end, and left it standing on the broken part, showing, in this simple and pleasant manner, that the most perplexing things may become the easiest to be done when we are once shown the way, but not before; and that such was exactly the case with regard to the attempt of going in search of unknown lands.

The tidings of the great discovery made by Columbus were rapidly spread throughout Europe, filling every one with astonishment, and diffusing among nations a lively spirit for maritime enterprise. The Spanish sovereigns lost no time in taking means to secure their new acquisitions. A bull was obtained from Pope Alexander VI, granting them the investiture of all the lands that had been or that might be discovered in Western India, under the condition of planting and propagating the Catholic faith among the inhabitants. But, lest the discoveries of the Spaniards should interfere with those of the Portuguese, which had likewise been secured by a Papal bull, an ideal line was drawn, by order of the Pope, from the northern to the southern pole, a hundred leagues west of the Azores. All land discovered to the west of this line was conceded to the Spanish crown; all discovered in the opposite direction was to belong to Portugal.*

In the mean time, great exertions were made in the

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* See note C.

Spanish ports to fit out a second expedition upon a larger scale. It consisted of seventeen ships, and about fifteen hundred persons, among whom there were laborers and artisans of all kinds intended for the projected colony, and twelve clergymen destined to impart religious instruction to the natives. With these, Columbus sailed from Cadiz on the twenty-fifth of September, 1493, and had a favorable passage to Hayti; but his disappointment was very great to find there neither the fort which he had built, nor the forty men whom he had left for its defence. During his absence, their tyrannical and oppressive conduct provoked the hostility of the Indian population, who slew them, and utterly demolished their fortress.

The return of Columbus, his authority, his prudence and moderation, might have restored tranquillity in the island; unfortunately, the excellent views which he entertained, instead of being seconded by the zeal, were constantly opposed by the avarice, ambition and depravity of most of his new companions. In spite of his measures, of the orders of the sovereigns, and of the zealous remonstrances of charitable men (such, for instance, as the celebrated Bartholomew of Las Casas, bishop of Chiapa), the Indians were cruelly oppressed; and the numbers of that unfortunate race daily decreased, from war, starvation and ill-treatment.

Finding himself involved in difficulties, Columbus returned to Spain in 1495. His arrival at court easily dispelled the clouds which envy and calumny had thrown round his conduct and administration; but he now saw how much more he would have afterwards to endure from his enemies. It was only after two years of fresh disappointments and tedious expectation, that he succeeded in obtaining a squadron of six vessels for a new voyage. From various considerations, he was induced to steer more to the south than he had ever done before. This course led him to the mouth of the great river Oronoco, where he for the first time beheld the continent, on the first of August 1498; a most interesting discovery, of the importance of which Columbus himself was little aware at the time. The continual dangers which he had to encounter in those unknown seas, together with a variety of other incidents obliged him to hasten his return to Hispaniola, where he hoped to enjoy the repose he so much needed, before pursuing the great work of exploring the continent.

But, while the admiral was thus undergoing all kinds of hardships for the service of Spain, the party of his enemies obtained the ascendency at court. Their charges against him of ill-administration were so continual, so artful, and so numeroos, that the Spanish sovereigns thought it proper to despatch a commissary to Hispaniola, for the purpose of investigating the real state of affairs. This commissary was Francisco de Bobadilla, an intelligent, but at the same time a passionate man. After his arrival at San-Domingo, he acted with such marked partiality, that, while he readily listened to the accusations of the rabble against Columbus, he refused to hear his defence, and even went so far as to send him in chains to Europe (A. D. 1500).

In the midst of such outrageous injuries heaped upon his character and person, Columbus displayed surprising magnanimity. When the vessel on which he embarked, put to sea, the captain, who was a man of feeling, wished to take off the fetters of the unfortunate admiral; but *he* never would consent to it, and protested that he was resolved to wear them until they should be removed by the express command of his sovereigns. It is said that he ever after kept those chains hanging in his room, and gave orders that they should be buried with him, as a memorial of the ingratitude which the world returns for eminent services.

The arrival of Columbus as a prisoner and a criminal, caused throughout Spain a general burst of indignation against his enemies. The king and queen disavowed the proceedings of Bobadilla, as contrary to their instructions; they consoled the admiral by a most gracious reception, and promised to reinstate him in all his privileges and dignities. This, however, owing both to the untimely death of Isabella, and to the procrastinating policy of Ferdinand, never was effected. After all, temporal and mercenary considerations had but little weight with Columbus; nor could obstacles abate his zeal for useful discoveries. Having obtained, after some delay, that a few vessels should be again placed at his disposal, he sailed once more from Cadiz, in the spring of 1502, accompanied by his youngest son Fernando, who afterwards wrote his father's life.

Never had the admiral to suffer so much as in this his fourth and last voyage; yet never did he evince more wonderful presence of mind and greater resources of genius. This appeared chiefly in the following occurrence. After a long and perilous cruise on the boisterous gulfs near the isthmus of Panama, the shattered state of his vessels obliged him, on his return, to run them ashore on the coast of Jamaica, and to remain there for several months. At first, the Indians were eager to supply the Spaniards with provisions, which they exchanged for trifling objects; gradually their ardor subsided, and their useful visits became less and less frequent. The scarcity daily increased in the little camp; and all began to entertain horrible apprehensions of famine, when a most happy idea presented itself to the mind of Columbus.

From his knowledge of astronomy he ascertained that there would be, in three days, a total eclipse of the moon. He therefore summoned the principal caciques (Indian chieftains) to a conference, appointing for it the day of the eclipse. When all were assembled, he first reproached them, through his interpreter, with their inhuman insensibility, and threatened them with the vengeance of the God of heaven whom the Spaniards adored: as a token of this impending vengeance, the moon, he said, would refuse her light to them on that very night. In fact, the eclipse commenced a few hours after, and struck terror and dismay into the hearts of the Indians. They fell at the feet of Columbus, and entreated him to ask pardon for them of the God of heaven, assuring him that they would thenceforth bring to the Spaniards whatever he required. He feigned to yield with reluctance to their request, and, shutting himself up for some moments in his cabin, came out to them again, and said, that, under the strict condition of their future fidelity to their promises, he had obtained their pardon from the Almighty; in sign of which they would presently behold the light of the moon.

The admiral had cunningly waited for the opportune moment when the eclipse was about to terminate. The moon began to appear, and soon recovered all its brilliancy, to the inconceivable joy of the Indians, who were scarcely able, from excess of astonishment, to testify their admiration, reverence and gratitude for Columbus. They hastened to propitiate him with gifts, and, from that time forward, not only supplied the Spaniards with abundance of provisions, but carefully avoided giving them the least displeasure. At last, two vessels, arriving from Hispaniola, delivered the admiral with his companions from this perilous kind of exile, and conveyed them to a safer place. As soon as the state of his affairs permitted, he reembarked for Spain, which, after a passage marked by new adventures, he reached on the seventh of November 1504, with a constitution shattered by so long a series of anxieties, hardships and sufferings.

About this time Columbus lost his constant protectress, queen Isabella, and, with her, every well founded hope of ever being reinstated in his former dignities. It was in vain that he had more and more deserved the gratitude of the court by new services and discoveries; in vain too, that he urged the execution of his royal promise; the political Ferdidand always deferred, under various pretences; till the admiral, who had led since his return a lingering life, died at Valladolid, at the age of about sixty-five,

A. D. 1506. His last sufferings were sanctified by his usual resignation, his last moments devoted to all the pious practices of religion, and his last words, those of the Royal Prophet, *Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit.*—Psalm xxx. 6.

What has been already said of Columbus, clearly shows that he possessed all the characteristics of a truly great man—a noble soul, a vast genius for discovery, and a surprising sagacity in finding out expedients and resources in the greatest dangers. His piety was genuine and fervent, his heart benevolent and generous, and his conduct in unison with the feelings of his heart. Instead of ravaging the newly found countries, like many of his contemporary discoverers, who were intent only on immediate gain, he sought to colonize and cultivate them, to civilize the natives, and subject every thing to the control of law, order and religion. If the noble attempt failed, the whole history of this great man proves that the failure cannot be laid to his charge.

When Columbus, by his death, ceased to excite the jealousy of the Spanish court, great honors were paid to his memory; yet, he never obtained the recompense which he had best deserved, that of giving his name to the New World. His just claims were defeated, in this particular, by Amerigo Vespucci, a native of Florence, who in 1499 visited the same coast of Paria which Columbus had discovered in 1498, and publishing a relation of the important fact, as if he had first of all perceived the continent, caused it to be called *America*. But even admitting the merits of Vespucci, he cannot claim the honor of the discovery; to him alone it belongs who was the first to conceive, mature and execute the bold design of crossing an unknown ocean in search of a New World.

PORTUGUESE SETTLEMENTS IN ASIA.—A. D. 1497—1515.

NUMEROUS expeditions followed the enterprise of Columbus. Most of them started from the harbors of Spain, and were conducted by Spanish adventurers eager to enrich or distinguish themselves by new and important discoveries; but others were also undertaken by foreign nations. About the same time that Columbus and Vespucci descried *Terra Firma* in the south, the celebrated navigator, Sebastian Cabot, sailing in the service of Henry VII, king of England, discovered and explored the coasts of the northern continent of America. Not long after, Canada and the river St. Lawrence were visited by James Cartier and other French seamen; but the Portuguese, by following a different direction, did something still more remarkable. In 1497, Vasco de Gama, sent by Don Emmanuel, king of Portugal, succeeded in doubling the Cape of *Good Hope*, and after a voyage of thirteen months arrived at the fertile shores of East India. During subsequent years, the Portuguese made, throughout that extensive country, acquisitions and settlements nearly equal in value to those of the Spaniards in the New World.

The East Indies had always held a conspicuous rank among the states of the Asiatic continent, and been looked upon, from the time of the ancient Assyrians, Persians and Greeks, as an important and enviable country. At later periods, India witnessed frequent revolutions, and was exposed to frightful calamities from the incursions of Saracen, Tartar and Mogul conquerors. Towards the epoch which now occupies our attention, and during the two following centuries, it comprised many independent states, the most powerful of which, and probably the most opulent in the world, was the empire of Hindoostan, abounding in pearls, gold and silver, and enriched both by its commerce and the productions of the soil.

Greater resistance was made by the Indians of Asia than by those of America to their European aggressors. It was only after many toils and hardships, after many struggles and battles, after persevering efforts under the command of intrepid leaders, such as Gama, Cabral, Pacheco, and Albuquerque; that the Portuguese were enabled to establish settlements all along the Indian coast, at Goa, Cochin, Malacca, etc. and in various islands of the Southern ocean. Nor was their power throughout these countries of long duration, most of their Asiatic possessions being soon wrested from them by the Dutch and the English during the course of the seventeenth century.

The Portuguese had also extended their commercial relations to the eastern extremities of Asia, as far as China and Japan. These countries, although hitherto little known to the nations of Europe, were ancient and flourishing empires. The Chinese, particularly, claim a very high antiquity, their nation having been founded about two thousand years before the coming of our Lord, and governed, since that remote period, by two hundred and forty emperors, of twenty-two different families. Still their history, with respect to the ages preceding the epoch of their great legislator Confucius (towards the year 500 B. C.), is involved in obscurity.

China is the most populous empire in the world, containing nearly three hundred millions of inhabitants, and several cities, if not superior, at least equal in extent to the largest among the European and American cities. The established religion is a mixture of theism and idolatry; there are also Mahometans and Jews, though in small numbers. In the seventeenth century, Christianity obtained numerous proselytes among the Chinese, under their celebrated emperor Kang-hi; but since that time, the Christians have been always harassed and persecuted with more or less rigor.

The northern frontier of this extensive region is protected by a wall twenty-four feet high, thirty or forty feet thick, and fifteen hundred miles long, crossing not only valleys and mountains, but even rivers, over which it passes in the form of bridges. Its gates and towers are almost every where of a colossal size, and defended by numerous troops. It was built two thousand years ago, as a defence against the Tartars, whom it did not however prevent from twice invading and subduing China, first under Genghis-Kan and his sons, and again in the seventeenth century.

The Chinese are generally witty and polite, intelligent and industrious, but only to a certain degree; and they are vain-glorious, self-conceited, and excessively prepossessed in favor of their nation. Although great lovers of architecture, mechanics, painting, astronomy, natural philosophy, etc., they advance but little in these various departments of the arts and sciences. They could not conceal their surprise and jealousy, when the Jesuit missionaries appeared two hundred years ago in China, at seeing those foreigners much more versed than themselves in all the branches of mathematics and natural history. Even the knowledge and use of the mariner's compass, of printing, of gun-powder and artillery, which they seem to have possessed before our European ancestors, have always been among them in a state of comparative imperfection. Their armies, how numerous soever, scarcely deserve the name of military force, or their vessels that of navy; whilst, in point of morality, their inhuman treatment of infants, their want of uprightness towards foreigners, their pride, and other vices, place them far below all Christian nations.

Japan is likewise a civilized and mighty empire, consisting of many islands, not far from the eastern part of Asia. The revenue and forces of the emperor are immense, the former being, it is said, nearly two hundred millions of dollars, the latter amounting, if required, to four hundred thousand infantry and sixty thousand cavalry. The government is absolute and despotic; very little otherwise is known of this nation, owing to the jealousy with which foreigners are excluded.

Towards the middle of the sixteenth century, St. Francis Xavier and other zealous missionaries preached the gospel in Japan with such wonderful success, that, after a short time (in 1596), it contained no fewer than four hundred thousand Christians. Unfortunately, at that time, powerful and profligate princes undertook to destroy this illustrious *portion* of the church, and succeeded in the impious attempt. A dreadful persecution arose, which shed torrents of Christian blood in the various provinces of the empire; nor did it cease until there remained no more victims to be immolated by the sword of the persecutors. From that epoch, the avenues of Japan have been closed against foreigners, and the Dutch are the only Europeans admitted into one of its harbors for the purposes of trade.

DECLINE OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS.—WARS FOR THE POSSESSION OF ITALY.—CARDINAL XIMENES.—POPE LEO X.—A. D. 1494—1517.

The discovery of America and of the passage of the Cape of Good Hope, whilst it proved of the greatest advantage to Spain and Portugal, naturally occasioned the decline of the Italian republics. Up to this period, foreign commerce had been mostly in the hands of the Venetians, Genoese, and other maritime nations of Italy, who, from the shores of the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, communicated with the Red sea through the Isthmus of Suez, and thus could carry on trade with all the nations of the east. The two great events just mentioned gave a new direction to the ideas, projects and commerce of the European nations; and Venice, with the other commercial states of the peninsula, saw her traffic decline in proportion as Portugal and Spain increased in wealth and power.

Another and a still heavier calamity which afflicted

Italy at this period, was the almost uninterrupted series of bloody wars in which it was involved during a great numbers of years. The first occasion of these calamities was the envied possession of the kingdom of Naples. Since 1443, it had been under the princes of the house of Arragon; but the French monarchs looked with a jealous eye at that beautiful country, which had once for a long time belonged to princes of their family. King Charles VIII, the successor of Louis XI, whose whole reign had been spent in endeavoring to weaken the power of the great vassals of the crown, undertook to reconquer Naples in 1494. He executed his design in the beginning of the following year, but soon lost all his conquests. The Italian princes had now united against him, and, although he gloriously repelled them in the battle of Fornovo, the only advantage he derived from this victory was to save the remains of his army, and return without further obstacle to France.

A second expedition for the same purpose took place in 1501, under Louis XII, successor of Charles VII. It was attended with similar circumstances and exactly the same result as the first; great success in the beginning, followed by a total failure; repeated advantages obtained over the Neapolitan army by the French troops, who were afterwards frequently defeated at Cerignola, Garigliano, etc., by the Spanish commander, Gonzales of Cordova, surnamed the *great general.* A treaty almost entirely to the advantage of Spain, was then concluded between the rival powers, and terminated these contests for the kingdom of Naples.

But there were not wanting other motives or pretences for renewing the war. In 1508, a powerful league was formed at Cambray between the emperor of Germany, the kings of France and Arragon, and some other sovereigns, against the republic of Venice, whose haughtiness and ambitious views had provoked their indignation or their fears. None of the confederates acted with as much vigor as Louis XII, and none derived less advantage from the defeat of the Venetians. His very exploits and brilliant victory at Agnadel (1509), having soon rendered him an object of jealousy to the other princes, the league turned against him; and the French, notwithstanding their new and bloody victory at Ravenna, where they lost their young heroic leader, the duke of Nemours (1512), were again expelled from Italy.

France itself was invaded, on one side by the Swiss, who, having conquered the duke of La Tremoille, at Novara, advanced into Burgundy as far as Dijon; on the other, by the emperor Maximilian and Henry VIII, king of England, whose combined armies gained the battle of Guingamp, also called *the battle of Spurs*, because in it the French cavalry used their spurs more than their weapons. In fine, the king of Scotland, James IV, an ally of France, was also defeated by the English at Flodden-field, where he lost his life in the conflict (1513). The conquerors however made but little progress, and Louis happily succeeded in making them consent to a truce, which afforded him some respite. He died at this juncture, without male issue, and was succeeded on the throne by his cousin, the earl of Angouleme, who took the name of Francis I.

This new monarch, being in the flower of his age, resolved to conduct the war with fresh vigor. He therefore crossed the Alps at the head of a gallant army, and pressed forward till he was attacked by the Swiss near Marignan, on the thirteenth of September, 1515. These brave highlanders had neither cavalry nor artillery, and yet fought with the most undaunted courage. Notwithstanding the dreadful havoc which the cannon made among them, the survivors repeatedly renewed the charge, and several times were on the point of breaking through the French line. It was only after a tremendous engagement of two days and the slaughter of several thousands of them, that the survivors retired from the field. A French general, the marshal of Trivulce, who had been present at seventeen other battles, said that none of them, for the obstinate valor displayed on both sides, could be compared with that of Marignan. He consequently called it the *battle of giants*, under which name it is also known in history.

Francis I evinced on that trying occasion a rare intrepidity. He met in person the most vigorous charges made by the Swiss, without ever losing, in so long a conflict, his presence of mind and his confidence of success. At last, the timely arrival of the Venetians, his allies, under the command of their celebrated general Alviano, entirely turned the day in his favor.

Great were the fruits of this splendid victory for France. Some of her opponents presently desisted from further hostilities; and the Swiss in particular acceded to a treaty of reconciliation with such willingness and sincerity, as to become, from that time, her most faithful ally. King Ferdinand still endeavored, it is true, to protract the war, but, exhausted by mental fatigues and bodily infirmities, he died in the following year (1516), after an almost uninterrupted career of glory, tarnished, however, on some occasions, by a want of sincerity and of fidelity to his promises. In royal qualities and political achievements he had certainly no equal among the sovereigns of his age, if we except his heroic and virtuous consort Isabella, who moreover surpassed him in pure, noble and delicate feelings.

The chief personages who contributed most efficaciously with Ferdinand and Isabella to the glory of their reign, were beyond doubt Christopher Columbus, Gonzales of Cordova, both already noticed in the foregoing pages, and Cardinal Ximenes, archbishop of Toledo, the ablest politician, the most zealous minister of state, the most penetrating genius, in a word, all things taken into consideration, the greatest man that ever Spain produced. Immense and innumerable were the services which he rendered to the church, to the state, to his sovereigns and to the people, during the twenty-two years of his religious and civil administration (1495—1517). Magnificent, great, generous, the constant protector of merit, virtue and innocence, he conceived and executed such projects only as were calculated to advance the cause of religion and humanity. To him the Spanish nation was indebted for several of her best and most useful establishments, and the literary world for the publication of the first *Polyglot Bible*,* which he, with incredible care and expense, caused to be printed at Alcala, in six folio volumes (A. D. 1515).

From this period we may date the complete revival of literature and of the arts and sciences. The French king, Francis I, distinguished himself in this respect by his patronage of learning and of learned men. But no one favored their cause and promoted their success, with greater zeal than Pope Leo X, whose name has in consequence been adopted to designate the first part of the sixteenth century considered as a literary age. Endowed with the most exquisite taste, he imparted to all around him that relish for the fine arts, for true eloquence and poetry, which is the usual forerunner of masterly productions. Scholars and artists, roused to uncommon exertions by his signal protection and encouragement, frequently vied with the most elevated geniuses of antiquity, and Italy again beheld, as in the time of the Cæsars, a multitude of her children, such as Raphael, Michael Angelo, Ariosto, Tasso, Vida, Bembo, Sadolet, etc., astonishing the world, some by their masterpieces of painting and architecture, others by their beautiful poems and various kinds of writing, which we still admire, both for their delicacy and for their pure and elegant style.†

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* Or, *Bible in several languages.*—There exist three other celebrated Polyglots: that of Antwerp, A. D. 1572;—of Paris, 1645;—and of London, 1658.

† See note D.

LUTHER AND THE REFORMATION.—A. D. 1517—1529.

At the termination of the wars of Italy in 1516, there was a prospect of a general and lasting peace among Christian nations, when unforeseen events unexpectedly excited anew all the human passions, and carried to a still higher pitch, the disturbances of Europe. The chief and first cause of these fresh commotions, was the religious revolution effected by Luther in Germany.

Martin Luther was born in 1483, at Eisleben, a small town of Saxony. After having studied with great success in the Latin schools of Magdebourg and Eisenach, he completed his education in the university of Erfurt. In the year 1505, he took the degree of Master of Arts, which authorized him to deliver lectures on Physics and the Ethics of Aristotle. But in consequence of an extraordinary event* which happened to him about this time, and produced a deep impression upon his mind, he formed the design of becoming a religious, and accordingly joined the order of the Augustinians at Erfurt.

The life of the young monk (he was then twenty-five years of age) was regular, and in many respects exemplary. He manifested however, in several instances, particularly when he was opposed or corrected, a warm and irritable disposition. His talents and learning caused his superiors to recommend him to the elector of Saxony, as a professor of divinity in the newly erected university of Wittemberg; and when he afterwards began to preach, the vehemence of his discourses, the boldness of his eloquence, and a nervous kind of expression added to a copious flow of words in his mother-tongue, soon acquired for him the reputation of a good preacher.

In the year 1517, Pope Leo X having solemnly published indulgences to be gained by those who, being *truly* repentant for their sins, should contribute by their pious offerings, to the rebuilding of St. Peter's church in Rome, and to the expenses of an intended crusade against the Turks, the Augustinians could not see, without some jealousy, the publication of these indulgences intrusted by the archbishop of Mentz, not to them, as had been usual, but to the Dominican order; and as it was reported on the other hand, that great abuses existed in the publication and distribution of these indulgences by the Dominicans, Luther was commissioned by his superiors to preach and write against these abuses. This commission he fulfilled with a great deal of warmth; but he did not stop there. In the heat of the dispute, he passed insensibly from abuses which the whole church condemned with him, to the things abused, and soon began to attack the indulgences themselves; and to maintain his first position, he was insensibly led to deny also the efficacy of the Sacraments, the invocation of the saints, the sacrifice of the mass, and many other tenets universally admitted in the church.

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* The death of one of his companions, who was killed by a thunderbolt at his side, when they were walking together.

This bold step produced the greatest excitement all over the Christian world. Luther himself was at first terrified at it. When he began the dispute, it was not his intention to carry it so far, still less to come to an open rupture. He had even expressed his perfect submission to the Roman Pontiff in a letter which he wrote to Leo X, and which he concluded with these remarkable words: "Therefore, most holy father, prostrate at the feet of your Holiness, I place myself at your disposal, with all that I am and all that I have. Vivify, kill, call, recall, approve, disapprove, as you please; in your voice I will acknowledge the voice of Christ, who presides and speaks in you." But having in the interval gained over a strong party, he no sooner saw his condemnation pronounced in the papal bull of 15th June 1520, than he suddenly broke asunder all the ties by which he still adhered to the Roman

See, openly separated from it, and the better to seal his separation, he publicly burnt the bull in which his opinions had been condemned, together with the decretals of the Popes and the writings of Eckius his principal adversary, in the presence of the professors and the students of the university, and an immmense concourse of the inhabitants of Wittemberg.

The die was now cast; from that moment, Luther pronounced the Pope to be the anti-christ, the man of sin, the minister of Satan, from whom all should fly; he used similar expressions, not only against the king of England, Henry VIII, who had written a book in refutation of his tenets, but also against the various universities and catholic doctors, by whom his doctrine had been unanimously rejected. The vehemence of his discourses, his exhortations to shake off the yoke of sacramental confession, of penitential works, of religious celibacy, and his suggestion to seize upon ecclesiastical property, vastly increased the number of his followers. No later than the year 1523, the doctrines and practices of the reformation were introduced into Denmark, Sweden, and many other countries of the north of Europe; whilst, on the other hand, Zuinglius, and, shortly after, Calvin endeavored to effect similar or even greater changes in Switzerland and France, where they met however with more opposition and less success.

In 1529, an imperial decree was issued at Spire for the purpose of checking the progress of religious dissensions, and restoring the unity of faith in Germany; but it had very little effect. The partisans of Luther *protested* against it, whence came their name of *Protestants;* they moreover appealed to the sword in support of their pretensions, and commenced a civil war which disturbed nearly the whole reign of the emperor Charles V. These measures were adopted by them the more willingly, as Luther himself had declared that it was lawful, and even necessary, to take up arms in order to defend and propagate the reformation.

Thus was completed a revolution which split the great Christian family in Europe into many separate and opposite communities. Its chief promoter lived long enough to see not only the rise of the other branches of the reformation, but also the subdivision of his own establishment into a multitude of parties. He died in 1546. During the same year, his various tenets, together with those of Zuinglius and Calvin, began to be discussed and subjected to the usual form of Ecclesiastical condemnation in the council of Trent, the last of the general councils, first convened in the end of 1545, and, after two interruptions, finally closed in 1563.

CHARLES V AND FRANCIS I.—A. D. 1519—1529.

Another cause of the disturbances and evils which afflicted Europe at this unfortunate period, was the obstinate jealousy of two rival and powerful sovereigns. The imperial throne of Germany, left vacant by the death of Maximilian I in 1519, had been simultaneously claimed by Francis I, king of France, and Charles, archduke of Austria, who had lately succeeded his grand-father Ferdinand on the throne of Spain. The former indeed was a brave and generous prince, but the latter possessed more prudence and skill, and, being moreover of German extraction, was easily preferred before his competitor. He received the imperial crown at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the twenty-third of October, 1520.

Francis could not, without deep sorrow, see his hopes disappointed; and, imagining himself injured, availed himself of his other pretensions with regard to the kingdoms of Navarre and Naples, to commence hostilities. During the first campaigns, success was almost equally divided between the two parties, till the high-constable de Bourbon, dissatisfied with the French court, and basely abandoning the cause of his sovereign and country, went to offer his services to the emperor. Immediately after, the French lost all their possessions in Italy, together with the brightest ornament of their chivalry, the illustrious Bayard, surnamed *the knight without fear and without reproach.*

Francis now resolved, in order to repair his losses, to take upon himself the conduct of the war. He crossed the Alps at the head of a fresh army, and marched as far as Pavia, which he besieged; the imperial troops under the command of De Bourbon, hastening at the same time to the relief of the garrison. At their approach, Francis was advised by his ablest officers rather to abandon the siege than expose his wearied soldiers to an attack from superior forces; but his mind, too sensible to the point of honor, could not brook the idea of retreating before the enemy; he therefore determined to abide the issue of a battle.

It seemed, in the beginning, that victory would declare for the French. Their well-conducted artillery mowed down whole ranks of their opponents, when, on a sudden, the imprudent valor of the king destroyed his prospect of success. Anxious to fight with the sword, he rushed forward, and most awkwardly placed himself between the enemy and his own cannon, which, prevented from firing any longer, of course became useless. This conduct was deservedly followed by a complete overthrow. The imperialists, having nothing more to fear from the French artillery, rallied and fell with fury on the squadron commanded by the king. In a few moments, the scale of fortune was inclined; Francis saw all his attendants fall by his side; and after having fought with the most desperate courage, and killed seven of the assailants with his own hand, he was forced to surrender himself a prisoner. Of the French army, one-half had been destroyed, the remainder evacuated Italy (A. D. 1525).

The unhappy monarch was, according to his own request, conveyed to Madrid, the capital of Spain. He was detained there for several months, and could not rescue himself from his tedious captivity otherwise than by promising the full cession of several provinces which he either actually possessed, or had hitherto claimed. No sooner was he set at liberty than he bitterly complained of the rigor of these conditions, and availed himself of the opposition with which the treaty met in the council of state, to leave it unexecuted.

This conduct could not but highly displease the emperor. The feelings of both parties were thus more exasperated than ever; the war was renewed, and carried on with redoubled violence, especially by the treacherous constable De Bourbon, who, having no funds to pay his army chiefly composed of Lutheran soldiers from Germany, promised, in order to make Pope Clement VII repent of his kind disposition towards France, to enrich them by the pillage of Rome. Accordingly he led his troops to the attack of this capital; and, although he fell by a musket ball as he was mounting a ladder for the assault, the city was taken, and being abandoned for two months to a licentious and infuriate soldiery, suffered more from the German adventurers, than it had formerly done from either the Goths or the Vandals. Still, as neither this nor any other event of the war could be looked upon as a decisive action, both parties became tired of hostilities, and equally desirous of a speedy accommodation of their differences. This was effected in 1529 by the treaty of Cambray, which, although less adverse to the interests of the French monarch than that of Madrid, secured many advantages to the emperor.

CHARLES V AND SOLIMAN II.*—A. D. 1520—1532.

The chief motive which had urged Charles V to conclude peace with France, was, that he needed all his troops to defend his hereditary dominions against the Turks. The invading spirit of those infidels was still as remarkable as under Mahomet II. Not only had they, within the last years, extended their conquests in Europe and Asia, but even Egypt, the richest country of Africa, was entirely subdued by them in 1517, notwithstanding the brave resistance of its possessors, the Mamelukes.

Soliman II, who succeeded his father, Selim I, in 1520, carried still further the glory of the Ottoman name. More fortunate than Mahomet himself, he successfully invaded Hungary; and Belgrade, no longer protected by the sword of Hunniades, fell, after a siege of six weeks, into the hands of the Turks. Many other towns were successively carried by storm, or obliged to open their gates. After this expedition, the sultan thinking it not advisable, for the present, to advance further in that direction, prepared himself for another conquest which he deemed still more important.

In 1522, four hundred vessels and two hundred thousand men appeared in sight of Rhodes, and laid siege to the capital of this island, which had now been in the possession of the knights Hospitallers for more than two hundred years. The Grand Master was Villiers de l'Isle Adam, a hero not inferior in any respect to Peter d'Aubusson, but less favored by existing circumstances. The nations of Europe being too actively engaged in the struggle between Charles V and Francis I, to send him any assistance, all the forces he could oppose to the multitude of the assailants, consisted merely of five thousand soldiers and six hundred knights. Still, with this handful of warriors, he held out, during six months, against all the efforts of the Janizaries, and all the exertions of Soliman, who had now arrived to conduct the siege in person. Such was the valor of these generous defenders of Rhodes, that, in a general assault, the Turks lost no fewer than twenty thousand, and in other attacks, a proportionate amount of their most intrepid warriors.

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* Called Soliman I by several authors who do not reckon Soliman, the son of Bajazet I, among the Turkish sultans, owing probably to the short and precarious duration of his reign.

At the sight of this dreadful slaughter of his troops, the sultan, driven almost to despair, thought of abandoning the siege, when the secret but fatal advice of an infamous traitor, one of the chief commanders in the town, encouraged him to stay, and redouble his efforts. The treason indeed was detected, and visited almost instantly with capital punishment; but it was too late for the liberation of Rhodes, now in great want of ammunition, and almost reduced to the last extremity. Although the knights continued, with their usual heroism, to repel every assault of the enemy, and seemed determined to bury themselves under the ruins of their capital, the inhabitants were not endowed with the same degree of fortitude. Justly dreading the horrors of a city carried by storm, they urged with entreaties and even with threats, the acceptance of an honorable and advantageous capitulation offered by Soliman.

It had thus become an indispensable necessity to yield, and all further resistance would have been of no avail; however, the few remaining knights could not leave, without deep regret, the spot which had been the theatre of their exploits. Above all, the departure of the Grand Master, at his advanced age, for a distant country, was an afflicting scene, which the sultan himself could not witness without compassion. Like the Trojans of old, under the conduct of Æneas, these noble fugitives, carrying along with them the fortunes and destinies of their order, wandered for some time over the seas, in search of a hospitable land. After a short stay in Candia, they reached the shores of Italy, where they met with the most consoling and cordial reception, and obtained at length from Charles V the possession of the small island of Malta, in the middle of the Mediterranean sea, a situation well adapted to their religious and military purposes. They fortified this new residence, so as to make it, like the former, the bulwark of Christendom and the centre of their exertions against the infidels.

The heavy losses which Soliman had sustained in Rhodes, taught him not to be hasty in undertaking any new expedition. He therefore passed the three or four ensuing years in advancing the interior prosperity of his empire, and securing among his subjects an adequate distribution of justice; till a revolt of the Janizaries warned him again, very unhappily for Europe, not to let these restless warriors live any longer in idleness. Having quelled the sedition, he, for the second time, invaded Hungary, at the head of two hundred thousand men. King Louis II, with only twenty-five or thirty thousand soldiers, fearlessly met him in the plains of Mohats (A. D. 1526), but was, after a sharp contest, overwhelmed by numbers, and paid with the loss of his army, his crown, and his life, the forfeit of his imprudence. The sultan, no longer opposed in his march, now laid waste the surrounding country, took Buda, an important place, and advancing westward towards Vienna, laid siege to that city, the capital of the Austrian dominions. Fortunately, Vienna was better supplied than Rhodes with troops and provisions: twenty thousand brave soldiers, under the command of the count palatine and the earl of Salm, composed the garrison, and all of them displayed such indomitable courage, as finally to compel the Turks to retire, after twenty useless assaults, and the loss of eighty thousand warriors (A. D. 1529).

Soliman however did not yet give up his hostile designs against Austria. He reappeared in 1532, with an army of three, some say, five hundred thousand men. Charles V marched against him with thirty thousand horse, and ninety thousand well disciplined infantry, besides prodigious swarms of irregulars. At the sight of these powerful nonarchs and of their formidable hosts advancing against each other, all Europe stood in awe and in expectation of a tremendous conflict; yet, when the armies approached, instead of a decisive battle, there were only a few skirmishes between the front lines. Soliman did not think proper to risk a defeat; and, retreating in good order, rather chose to turn his arms against the less warlike nations of Asia. Nor did the emperor undertake to pursue him in this retrograde march, but, being himself satisfied to see the country free from invasion, he disbanded his own forces, and set out from Germany to visit his provinces of Italy, and his kingdom of Spain.

CONQUEST OF MEXICO.—HERNANDO CORTEZ.

A. D. 1519—1523.

Whilst Charles V caused his power to be obeyed or feared all over Europe, his name was carried to the extremities of the earth by the celebrated Magellan, who was the first to undertake the circumnavigation of the globe; and other intrepid adventurers, about the same time, were subjecting to his sway vast and opulent countries in the New World. Such was, indeed, chiefly during this period, the heroic spirit, partly religious and partly chivalrous, diffused among the Spaniards, that nothing seemed impossible to their activity, valor and perseverance.* This the reader will easily perceive in the impartial and detailed account of the manner in which a handful of warriors of that magnanimous nation succeeded in conquering the mighty empires of Mexico and Peru, the former in North, the latter in South America.

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* "Les Espagnols," says a recent author, with no less conciseness than truth, "les Espagnols avaient une foi robuste qui leur inspirait des prodiges, et leur donnait la force de les exécuter."

In one of their excursions upon the American continent, the Spaniards were informed that there existed, at no great distance from the coast, a rich and flourishing empire called Mexico. The governor of Cuba, Velasquez, having conceived the design of subjecting it, if possible, to the power of Spain, fitted out a fleet for that purpose, and placed it under the command of Hernando Cortez, one of his officers, whom he considered as a man equally capable of bringing the most arduous enterprise to a happy issue, and at the same time incapable of ever aspiring to independence. His conjectures as to the abilities of Cortez were perfectly correct; for it would have been impossible to find an individual possessing more sagacity and prudence, more energy and boldness; but, as the sequel will shew, he had completely mistaken his secret views and real character.

Cortez sailed from Cuba, on the tenth of January 1519, with eleven small vessels carrying six hundred men, sixteen horses and six pieces of artillery; not hesitating with this inconsiderable force to undertake the conquest of an empire which exceeded in extent all the European dominions of Spain. He had not proceeded far, when Velasquez began to fear the new general's temper, and revoked his commission; but it was too late. Cortez, protected by the affection of his soldiers, continued his voyage, and landing on the continent, caused himself to be proclaimed independent of the governor of Cuba, and accountable to none but the Spanish monarch for the use of his authority. Immediately after this, he founded the colony of Vera Cruz, and the better to inspire his troops with desperate courage, burnt all his vessels, thus taking from them all hope of return.

The undaunted Spaniards began to advance through a populous country towards the Mexican capital, concerning which they had obtained new and encouraging information. It was then under the sway of Montezuma, a prince who governed with absolute despotism. Many of his subjects and tributaries, especially those at a distance, tired of the yoke which lay heavy upon them, looked upon Cortez as a deliverer, entered into an alliance with him, and supplied him with provisions and every kind of assistance. The republic of Tlascala, however, did not follow their example; on the contrary, it prepared to repel the strangers by open force. Many battles were fought, in which that people displayed uncommon bravery; but they could not long withstand the arms and tactics of the Europeans. Finding themselves constantly overpowered, the Tlascalans at length consented to treat the Spaniards as friends, and in fact became thenceforth their most faithful and useful allies. They aided Cortez wonderfully in the prosecution of his enterprise, particularly in subduing the great city of Cholula, and inflicting a severe chastisement on its inhabitants for a dreadful conspiracy which had placed the lives of all the conquerors in jeopardy.

In the mean time, Montezuma was endeavoring, by every expedient in his power, to impede the progress of the Spaniards; but Cortez overcame all obstacles, and, after a few days, finally came within sight of the vast and splendid city of Mexico, which contained no fewer than sixty thousand houses with a proportionate number of inhabitants. It was surrounded by a lake, well fortified, and adorned with a great number of temples, palaces, and other public buildings, showing great progress in civilization. Cortez entered the town, under his assumed quality of ambassador of the Spanish monarch, and was received with great pomp by Montezuma, who lodged him, together with the other Spaniards, in one of his palaces. But whilst these things took place in Mexico, an attack had been directed by a Mexican general against the colony of Vera-Cruz. No sooner was Cortez informed of all the circumstances of this new act of perfidy than, in order to secure himself against the dangers of his situation, he conceived and executed the boldest and most extraordinary design of which history makes mention, that of arresting the emperor himself in open day, and in the very presence of his officers and subjects. Taking with him a small band of resolute men, he went to the imperial palace, surrounded Montezuma, and compelled him to come with them to their residence as a hostage. In that new abode the astounded monarch agreed to acknowledge himself a vassal of Charles V; and, in consequence of this agreement ,delivered into the hands of the Spaniards a large sum of gold and silver, which Cortez distributed among his officers and soldiers with admirable disinterestedness and equity.

Every thing until now had been successful, and according to the most sanguine wishes of Cortez; but this course of prosperity was soon to meet with new obstacles. On the one hand, the Mexicans began to evince a strong indignation at the long sojourn of their sovereign among the Spaniards, and at the protracted stay of the Spaniards in Mexico; on the other hand, intelligence was received that the governor of Cuba, Velasquez, had despatched eighteen ships and nine hundred men to attack Cortez as a rebel. This rendered the position of the latter extremely perplexing. Should he remainin Mexico, or march against his new opponents, there was in either case equal danger of losing all the fruit of his past labors. He therefore adopted a middle course, not less daring indeed, than the other two, but which offered a greater chance of succeeding on one side without losing ground on the other. Leaving one hundred and fifty men in the imperial city, under the command of Alvarado, a brave and intrepid officer, to preserve the advantage he had already obtained, he set out with about two hundred and fifty others, to meet his hostile and imprudent countrymen. By prodigies of courage and activity, he not only surprised and defeated the nine hundred Spaniards, but even disarmed them all, made Narvaez, their general, prisoner, and taking the vanquished troops of that unskilful commander into his own service, returned in triumph to Mexico.

His joy was not of long duration. The open insurrection of the Mexicans, which had commenced during his absence, became general after his return. The Spaniards were surrounded, and repeatedly attacked in their intrenchments. As, on one occasion, the danger appeared more pressing, Montezuma made his appearance, in order to quell the sedition; but the unfortunate monarch was struck by a stone thrown by one of the assailants, and expired after three days of great suffering. His death proved fatal to the Spaniards, in whose preservation and welfare he seemed, in the end, to take a sincere interest. Under Quetlavaca, his successor, the attacks of the Mexicans were carried on with redoubled fury; and, although thousands of them were daily destroyed by the swords and cannons of the Spaniards, others fearlessly rushed forward in crowds to fill up the places of the slain, and to maintain the sanguinary contest.

In all these occurrences, Cortez made exertions and displayed a valor which seemed to be almost above nature. One day for instance, he fought, though painfully wounded, during three hours, till he forced the Mexicans to abandon a post from which they considerably annoyed the Spaniards. On another occasion, having driven the assailants to a distance, and being entirely occupied in continuing the pursuit, he at length found himself cut off, by a numerous body of enemies, from his own troops. In this imminent danger, he endeavored to reach a neighboring street, which he supposed might afford him a greater facility for escape. Scarcely had he advanced in that direction, when he met another party of Mexicans, and saw in the midst of them his intimate friend Duero, whom they were dragging to a temple of idols, to immolate him to their gods. Cortez, forgetful of his own peril, immediately rushed against them, dispersed their troop, and delivered Duero, who was even so fortunate as to find his horse and spear at a small distance. Then, the two noble friends riding together, pierced through the crowd of their enemies, and safely rejoined their soldiers, who had just completed the defeat of the Mexicans. Cortez always considered this adventure as one of the most fortunate of his life.

It became necessary however, for the present, to abandon Mexico. The requisite preparations for a retreat were made with extraordinary diligence and care; and the Spaniards began their march, a little after midnight, on the first of July 1520. Silence and obscurity favored them at first; but all their motions had been watched by a vigilant foe, and no sooner had they begun to cross a breach in the causeway, than a shower of darts, arrows and stones assailed them from different sides. Dismay and confusion pervaded their ranks, and the preposterous conduct of many who were intent on preserving their riches, was an additional cause of disasters. This awful night, which justly retained the name of *Noche triste*, cost the retreating army, several hundred Spanish, and more than a thousand Tlascalan soldiers, with nearly all the horses, treasure, artillery and baggage. Cortez appeared inconsolable, and was seen on the following day, when the troops resumed their march, shedding abundant tears, thus giving a mark of paternal sensibility, which endeared him to his soldiers as much as his consummate prudence and valor caused him to be respected.

The Spaniards continued their retreat in good order, notwithstanding some skirmishes which they had occasionally to repel. It was rather matter of surprise, that they did not meet with more formidable attacks; but the sixth day of their march taught them the new schemes contrived by the enemy for their destruction. The Mexican forces had been secretly directed to the valley of Otumba, through which the Spanish troops would be obliged to pass, in their way to Tlascala. When Cortez reached the neighborhood of that spot, the whole valley was already occupied by a hostile force amounting, it is said, to the number of two hundred thousand Indians, who had been collected from different tribes, as appeared from the variety of their banners and of their bodily ornaments. In the midst of them, the general of the empire appeared conspicuous, borne upon a splendid litter, from which he gave his orders. He carried in his hands the imperial standard, which was never intrusted to any one but himself, and never unfurled except on the most important occasions.

At the sight of this vast multitude of enemies, Cortez fervently implored the divine assistance, and plainly told his followers that there was no alternative now left them but to conquer or die. His plan was, to open for his troops a passage through the Indians in the narrowest part of the valley, where the confined nature of the spot would more easily render multitudes useless. Accordingly, he disposed his infantry in the form of a column, the files of which were composed alternately of musketeers and lancers. As to his cavalry, which terrified the Indians by the mere motion of the horses, it was placed partly in front, to break the first ranks of the enemy, and partly in the rear, to prevent them from reuniting. In this order, the Spaniards descended the hill, in order to commence the perilous conflict.

The first discharge of the musketry was made with such success, that the Mexicans who were facing the Spanish column had no time to shoot their arrows. They were instantly attacked with swords and pikes, whilst the cavalry pushed forward, and crushed or dispersed all who fell in their way. Considerable advantage was gained by this first onset. Similar charges produced similar results; but so great and obstinate was the bravery of the Indians, that, after the musketeers and cavalry had forced them to retire, they fearlessly returned to the charge, and regained the ground which they had just lost; the valley of Otumba, in the mean time, resembling a stormy sea agitated by the perpetual motion of its waves. Cortez, who, at the head of the cavalry, was making a terrible slaughter wherever he directed his steps, began to fear that this mode of warfare would finally exhaust the strength of his little army. His uneasiness increased every moment; when he suddenly conceived one of those bold ideas which great danger sometimes suggests, but only in men of uncommon energy of soul.

At the sight of the imperial banner waving in the distance, Cortez remembered having heard that the fate of battles was considered by the Indians as dependent on its loss or preservation. He immediately called around him his bravest officers, Sandoval, Olid, Alvarado, with some other courageous horsemen, and, at full gallop, forced his passage towards the banner. Whilst his companions were despatching or putting to flight all who had dared to await their approach, he himself attacked the Mexican general, wounded him, and by a powerful stroke of his lance brought him to the ground.

As soon as the venerated banner disappeared from the sight of the Mexicans, they lowered the other ensigns, and, throwing down their arms, fled precipitately towards the woods and mountains; so that the valley was in a few moments entirely cleared. Aware how important it was to complete their dispersion and overthrow, Cortez ordered his men to pursue them. He himself was suffering from a blow of a stone, which had broken his helmet and made a large contusion on his head. Both his orders, and the knowledge that he was wounded, so animated the Spaniards, that, notwithstanding the dreadful fatigue of the day, their strength seemed to be revived, and their fury to redouble in the pursuit of the enemy. According to the best Spanish authors, Herrera and Antonio de Solis, twenty thousand Indians perished in this famous battle, which may be justly reckoned the greatest and most glorious ever fought by the Europeans against the aborigines of America.

This brilliant victory removed all further obstacles from the way of the Spaniards. A few days after, they safely reached the friendly city of Tlascala, where a kind reception made them some compensation for the innumerable hardships which they had hitherto endured, and prepared them for new and more decisive efforts against Mexico.

The attention of Cortez was constantly directed to the grand object which he had previously in view; and difficulties rather increased than diminished his courage. Having granted his troops the repose which they needed, and given permission to reembark in the ships of Narvaez to those among his followers who were afraid of another expedition, he devoted all his time and care to the levying of a sufficient force. His good fortune, or rather Divine Providence, seconded his efforts beyond his expectation. Bands of brave soldiers with arms and ammunition successively came to him from different quarters of the Spanish settlements; the sulphur of a neighboring volcano enabled him to provide as much gun-powder as might be wanted; thousands of Tlascalans and other tribes in the neighborhood offered to assist him in the conquest of Mexico; in fine, he gave orders to prepare materials for building several brigantines, that he might be able to secure the command of the lake by which the city was surrounded.

When all things were in readiness, Cortez, for the third time approached the capital of the Mexicans, and commenced the regular operations of a siege. By his command, the attack was made under the direction of Sandoval, Olid and Alvarado, at three different points along three causeways leading to the town. Each of these brave captains had under him thirty or forty thousand Indians, with two hundred Spaniards and two pieces of artillery. Cortez reserved to himself the attempt to gain possession of the lake, as being the object on the attainment of which the success of all their exertions chiefly depended. His penetrating mind having easily perceived that this was the surest way to conquer Mexico, he fitted out for this purpose a flotilla of thirteen brigantines, each of which had, besides sails, twelve Indian rowers, twenty-five Spanish soldiers with a captain at their head, and a piece of ordnance. Cortez selected for himself the swiftest of his vessels, that he might the more easily afford assistance wherever it should be needed.

The brigantines, disposed in a single line, advanced across the lake towards Mexico. At some distance from the shore, a small island, or rather a large rock, on which was a castle defended by bodies of Indian troops, attracted the notice of the Spanish general. When he drew near, the Mexicans, believing their post to be inaccessible, loaded the Spaniards with insults and threats. Cortez thought that such insolence ought not to go unpunished, especially in the sight of the capital and in presence of its inhabitants, who were observing from their balconies the movements of the European flotilla. He therefore landed, for a moment, with one hundred and fifty men, and the castle was assaulted at two different points with such vigor and success, that one part of the garrison fell by the sword, and the other was obliged to escape by swimming.

This easy triumph gave occasion to another of much greater importance. Whilst Cortez and his troops were detained on the island, the Mexicans had sufficient time to collect their canoes on the other side of the lake, to the number of at least four thousand, with which they advanced towards their foe. This incredible fleet of boats, the agitation of the waves, the glitter of the arms and bodily ornaments of the Indians, presented a spectacle at once magnificent and terrific. Cortez however beheld it without the least emotion, and merely considered it as a warning to prepare for the combat; only, in order to oppose a larger front than before to the enemy, he now caused his ships to be drawn up in the form of a crescent. No sooner had he given the signal for an attack, than all the brigantines, urged forward at the same time by the oars and by a favorable breeze, bore down upon the Indian boats with irresistible impetuosity, and, notwithstanding the gallant resistance of the Mexican chieftains, threw them into a state of confusion more easily conceived than described. Nor was the result for a moment doubtful; as the arms of the Spaniards, a favorable wind, and the very bulk of their vessels, gave them, from the beginning of the action, a decided superiority. Great numbers of the Indian canoes were broken to pieces by the artillery, sunk by coming in contact with the brigantines, or dashed against one another; the remainder, closely pursued by a victorious enemy, made a narrow escape.

This great naval victory made the Spaniards masters of the lake, and considerably hastened the capture of Mexico. The three divisions of the land army being now aided by their victorious fleet, gradually advanced along the causeways, and proceeded into the very streets of the imperial city, not, however, without terrible obstacles and several bloody conflicts, the Mexicans being occasionally successful in repelling the attacks of the besiegers, and disputing every inch of ground with incredible obstinacy. In these desperate encounters, the Indians were animated by the example of their young and magnanimous emperor, Guatimozin, who had lately succeeded Quetlavaca, and who left nothing untried to save his country and empire. But the combined efforts of the sovereign and his subjects served only to place in bolder relief the consummate abilities of the Spanish general. His measures were so well concerted, and the attack so admirably conducted by himself and his officers, that, in spite of every obstacle, the three divisions of the army reached the centre of Mexico nearly at the same time. The other parts of the city were soon forced to surrender; and, as the provinces quickly shared the fate, and followed the example of the capital, the capture of Mexico, in August, 1521, may be considered as the real epoch of the downfall of the Mexican empire. The siege had lasted three months, and cost the lives of one hundred and fifty thousand Indians.

The emperor, with his court and family, had endeavored to escape, but all were taken prisoners. The Spanish soldiery, roused to a pitch of fury, when they found themselves disappointed in the amount of treasures which they expected to obtain in the city, determined, in order to discover them, to put the unfortunate Guatimozin and his chief minister to the rack. That prince endured the torture with invincible constancy. Hearing his fellow-sufferer complain, he turned to him and said: "And myself, am I on a bed of roses?" Cortez rescued him, on this occasion, from the hands of the soldiery, but Guatimozin being afterwards accused of treason and conspiracy, was condemned and put to death about the year 1523. Thus perished the last emperor of Mexico.

Cortez himself soon experienced the vicissitudes of fortune. The conquest of an empire at first acquired for him from Charles V the honorable title of viceroy of the rich and extensive regions which he had subdued, and his indefatigable activity in improving and enlarging his conquests entitled him more and more to honors and rewards. But he was doomed, like Columbus, to be the victim of envy. Twice was he obliged to cross the ocean, in order to vindicate his innocence; and although he defended it with success, he saw his authority gradually declining, until, through the influence of his enemies, it disappeared entirely. His great services now seemed to be forgotten. The conqueror of Mexico was treated with indifference by the court of Spain, and could scarcely obtain an audience from his sovereign. As he had one day pierced through the crowd which surrounded the carriage of the emperor, Charles asked him who he was. "I am," replied Cortez, "the man who gave more provinces to your majesty than you inherited towns from your ancestors." In fine, baffled in all his hopes of recovering his former dignities, he retired to a little town near Seville, where he died at the age of sixty-two years (A. D. 1547).

The life of Cortez exhibits a variety of exploits so extraordinary, that, were it not for the testimony of the best historical documents, they would rather appear to exist only in the imagination. The burning of his fleet, after landing on unknown shores; his attack of a powerful empire with a handful of men; the capture of Montezuma in the midst of his own capital; the defeat of Narvaez; the victory of Otumba; the siege and conquest of Mexico, with all their circumstances, present a series of truly wonderful events—events almost unparalleled in the annals of history. Even amongst the greatest conquerors, few possessed, in as high a degree as Cortez, prudence in counsel, sagacity in his plans and measures, intrepidity in their execution, and energy of soul in the sharpest trials. The greater the dangers and hardships to which he was exposed, the more did his courage, presence of mind and military genius appear. To these brilliant qualifications he united genuine piety; sincere modesty, which made him think it no disgrace to ask for advice; a constant probity and generosity, which gained him universal confidence and esteem; in fine, a dignified gravity in his public deportment, and an amiable kindness and decent gaiety in the ordinary course of social and domestic life.*

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* It would be unjust to charge him with certain barbarous acts committed during the Mexican war. He was perhaps too hasty in consenting, though he did so with reluctance and for fear of worse consequences, to the torture and execution of Guatimozin; but, whatever may have been the cruelty of several soldiers, all historians agree in praising the habitual moderation and generosity of Cortez. He waged, it is true, a terrible warfare against the Mexicans, but it should be remarked, first, that he did not commence hostilities until he had been treacherously and repeatedly attacked by them; in the second place, that, even in the midst of his victories, he constantly offered them peace, which they refused; and, in fine, that he had to fight for the noble cause of humanity against enemies not less ferocious than implacable, and addicted to the barbarous custom of immolating human victims to the number of at least twenty thousand every year. The project of extirpating this monstrous barbarity was, on the principles of the ablest

It is certain then, notwithstanding the attacks of envy and prejudice, that the conqueror of Mexico was every way deserving of the extraordinary success which attended his arms. If jealousy endeavored to depreciate his transcendent merit during life, justice openly proclaimed it after his death; and posterity will ever distinguish Hernando Cortez among the many eminent personages of whom Spain so justly boasts, and rank him in the number of her most conspicuous heroes.

CONQUEST OF PERU.—FRANCIS PIZARRO.

A. D. 1524—1534.

The same is to be said of the conqueror of Peru, Francis Pizarro, a man whose courage, energy and magnanimity were not inferior to those of Cortez, though he had fewer occasions to display them on the field of battle. Having entered into a compact with Diego de Almagro, another intrepid adventurer, and collected a small band of followers, he sailed, in 1525, from Panama, and began to explore the shores of the Pacific ocean. His first attempts at discovery, were attended with little success. A variety of obstacles, contrary winds, distempers, and the like incidents, often impeded his progress, and so dispirited his companions, that nearly the whole crew once abandoned him and returned to Panama, not more than thirteen hardy men consenting to remain with him upon a desert coast, until he should receive a fresh supply of soldiers and provisions. By his persevering efforts, he succeeded, under the sanction of the Spanish government, in collecting a body of about two hundred men, for the beginning of the year 1531. With new ardor he advanced into the very heart of Peru, an extensive monarchy gov-

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civilians, Grotius, Montesquieu, etc., sufficient of itself to justify the military expedition of Cortez, and to render it a just and honorable enterprise.

erned by sovereigns called *Incas*, and the richest country in the world for mines of gold and silver.

The Peruvians were not less awed than the other nations of America, at the sight of men mounted upon formidable animals, and carrying thunder in their hands. The whole country was divided at that time between two hostile parties headed by the late Inca's sons, who had just made an appeal to arms for the decision of their quarrel concerning the succession to the throne. Huascar, the elder, was at first victorious, but afterwards defeated, and fell into the hands of his younger brother, Atabalipa. Both princes were anxious to secure the protection of the strangers, and Pizarro did not fail to take advantage of circumstances so favorable to his views. Without manifesting his real designs, he marched on to meet Atabalipa, and, after some useless negotiations, so vigorously attacked his army of thirty thousand men, that four thousand of them were killed, and the others dispersed, without the loss of a single soldier on the side of the Spaniards. The proud monarch was made prisoner, and, being soon tired of his captivity, offered for his ransom to fill up with pieces and vessels of gold a room twenty-two feet long and seventeen broad, as high as his hand could reach, and double that quantity of silver. The stipulated sum was paid to the Spaniards; still the Inca did not recover his liberty; but, on certain charges of an odious treason, and also as a punishment for his brother's murder, he was put to death in 1533.

The two principal cities of Peru, Quito and Cusco, surrendered to the invaders, with scarcely any show of resistance (1534). The rest of the empire was also subdued in a short time; and, the better to secure its allegiance, Pizarro founded, at a short distance from the sea, the rich and celebrated city of Lima. Unfortunately, obstinate and bloody quarrels began to arise among the conquerors themselves about the partition of their conquest. Pizarro prevailed for a time over the party of his opponents; but, disdaining to give credit to the intelligence of a conspiracy against him, finally became its victim. On the twenty-sixth of June, 1541, he was suddenly attacked in his palace at Lima, by a crowd of assassins, who made the air resound with the cry, *away with the tyrant.* His friends and servants being either killed or dispersed, he remained alone, without betraying the least sign of fear. Surrounded as he was by murderers, he defended himself with heroic courage, killed some of the assailants, wounded others, and at last, having himself received a mortal wound, fell and expired in the midst of them, whilst recommending his soul to his creator.

Such was the deplorable end of one of the most illustrious conquerors of the New World; of one, to whose undaunted and almost superhuman constancy, Spain was indebted for the subjugation of the Peruvian empire, and Charles V for the invaluable mines of Potosi. After his death, civil wars continued to desolate Peru, until the chief leaders of the first expedition had all disappeared. It was only in 1548 that the virtuous governor Pedro de la Gasca succeeded, by his consummate prudence, in terminating those wars, and in establishing the Spanish government on a permanent basis in that enviable country. The Spaniards acquired also, about the same time, the extensive territories of Chili and Paraguay; and the Portuguese profited by their example, to form valuable settlements along the coasts of Brazil.

CHARLES V CONTINUED—ACCESSION OF PHILIP II, AND FIRST TRANSACTIONS OF HIS REIGN.—A. D. 1535—1559.

WHILST the empire of Charles V was thus increasing abroad to an immense extent, that prince continued to astonish Europe by the display of his military and political talents. War having been renewed between him and Francis I, Charles generally maintained the superiority of his arms; still, when he attempted, on two or three occasions, to invade France at the head of formidable forces, he was as often compelled to retire with considerable loss.

In 1535, he undertook an expedition into Africa, for the purpose of checking the alarming progress of Barbarossa, a famous pirate chieftain. Having met him near Tunis, he defeated him in a great battle, took the city, and rescued from twenty to thirty thousand Christian slaves. Another expedition of the same kind, directed against Algiers, in 1541, was far from obtaining the same success: dreadful storms both on sea and land destroyed half of the emperor's fleet and army, and obliged him quickly to depart from those perilous shores. So unfortunate a result was so much the more painful to Charles, as he had conceived and followed up the project of conquering Algiers, contrary to the advice of the celebrated admiral Andrew Doria, and other able generals. However, throughout that series of disasters, he evinced such courage, firmness, magnanimity, and above all, so tender a solicitude for his distressed soldiers, as fully to atone for the partial loss which he sustained in his reputation with regard to prudence and military glory.

The same alternation of success and misfortune accompanied him in his wars against the Protestant states of Germany. He signally defeated them at Mulbert (A. D. 1547), but they recovered from this blow, and continued to give him considerable trouble till the year 1552, when an agreement was entered into by both parties.

After having been thus long the chief potentate of Europe, after having filled the whole world with the fame of his glorious achievements, this mighty emperor abandoned all earthly grandeur for an obscure and private life. He left the imperial dignity to his brother Ferdinand, resigned the Spanish crown with all its appendages and foreign dominions to his son Philip, and retired into a monastery of Hieronymites in Spain (A. D. 1556). In that peaceful abode he lived two years, dividing his time between spiritual exercises and innocent employments. The manner in which he closed his mortal career was as extraordinary as his life. Stretching himself in a coffin, he caused the funeral rites to be performed, and after the ceremony, retired in a state of deep melancholy, to his apartments, where he was seized with a violent fever, and died on the twenty-first of September, in the fifty-eighth year of his age. His reign, together with that of his grand-father Ferdinand and that of his son Philip, undoubtedly forms the most brilliant part of the history of Spain.

The famous rival of Charles, Francis I, had descended before him into the grave, and was succeeded by Henry II, a prince equal to his father as well in bravery as in his determined opposition to the house of Austria. This hostile feeling he had often evinced during the emperor's life; new causes of excitement urged him to manifest it again during the reign of his successor. Accordingly, France and Spain continued to be engaged in war against each other under their new sovereigns; and, in consequence of the marriage of Philip II with the English queen Mary, England interfered in favor of the Spanish monarch.

In the year 1557, the war assumed a most serious aspect. The confederates, amounting to seventy thousand, under the command of the duke of Savoy, invaded the French territory, and laid siege to St. Quentin, a town of Picardy defended only by a handful of soldiers. The high constable of Montmorency, at the head of an army of thirty thousand men, undertook to relieve the place, and really succeeded in augmenting the garrison; but, not having withdrawn in due time from the approaching enemy, was overtaken by superior forces, and compelled to engage in a very unequal contest. His defeat was entire; his cavalry fled; ten thousand of the infantry were killed or wounded; whereas the Spaniards did not lose more than eighty men; and the French, with their chief officers, the constable himself, eighty-eight banners, and all the artillery and baggage, fell into the hands of the conquerors.

The battle of St. Quentin might have proved the downfall of the French monarchy, had the conquerors pursued their advantage without delay. They wasted their time in taking some inconsiderable towns, until the autumnal rains obliged them to retire beyond the frontier. Henry improved the happy circumstance, by speedily mustering new forces, which enabled him, in the very next campaign, not only to stand upon the defensive, but even to attack with success. The duke of Guise, a general justly renowned for having a few years before compelled the emperor Charles to abandon the siege of Metz, was now placed at the head of the army, with the title of lieutenant-general of the kingdom. His prudence and valor fully answered the confidence reposed in him. After deceiving the allies by a skilful march, he suddenly appeared before Calais, and attacked it so vigorously, that this famous town, hitherto considered impregnable, was taken after a siege of eight days. It had been during two hundred and ten years in the power of the English, who lost with it their last possession on the continent (A. D. 1558).

At the news of this event, so unexpected, and, under existing circumstances, so glorious for France, all nations admired the vigor of her national spirit and the extent of her resources. No later than the ensuing year, a treaty was concluded between Philip and Henry, in virtue of which they restored to each other nearly all their late conquests; but Calais, with some other places, remained in the possession of the French. This loss sustained by the English naturally leads us to mention the other great transactions both civil and religious which took place in England under the government of the Tudors.

ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.—A. D. 1509—1588.

After the prosperous reign of the first Tudor, Henry VII, the English sceptre passed, in 1509, into the hands of his son, the famous Henry VIII. For the space of about twenty years, the new monarch enjoyed a great reputation, and increased the glory of his kingdom, by a wise administration at home, owing chiefly to the abilities of his prime minister, Cardinal Wolsey, and by brilliant successes abroad, in his wars against the French and the Scots; (see above, page 180). A vile passion which he would not restrain, transformed him into a despicable prince and a cruel tyrant. Wishing to repudiate his lawful wife, Catherine of Arragon, for the purpose of contracting another marriage with Anne Boleyn, a lady of his court, he applied to Pope Clement VII to obtain the necessary dispensation, which was refused as opposed to the divine law. The unprincipled monarch, disregarded the refusal; and not content with marrying Anne Boleyn, he, in his anger, abolished the papal jurisdiction in his kingdom, and assumed to himself the exercise of all spiritual supremacy over the English church (A. D. 1534). From that time he made his own will the only rule to be followed in church and state; persecuted both Catholics and Protestants; and spared neither his wives nor his most illustrious subjects, such as Bishop Fisher and Chancellor More, who were put to death for refusing to admit the assumed power, and to obey the wicked orders of the tyrant. This unhappy prince died in 1547.

Under his son and successor, young Edward VI, and by the exertions of the regent, the duke of Somerset, the Protestant doctrine became the religion of England. Mary, the eldest daughter of Henry VIII, reestablished the Catholic worship in 1554; but, in 1563, it was again discarded by her sister Elizabeth, who founded the church of England as it now exists. Mary, exasperated by the revolts which disturbed her reign, had treated the Protestants with great rigor; Elizabeth, without having any such cause, treated the Catholics with still greater severity, and under the influence of unprincipled ministers, began to frame those oppressive statutes, which disgraced the English legislation for nearly three centuries, and have in particular weighed so heavily upon Catholic Ireland.

Two other events of remarkable importance contributed to render the reign of Elizabeth for ever famous in a double point of view. The first was the death of Mary Stuart on the scaffold, in 1587. This unfortunate princess, who had been queen of Scotland, by inheritance, and queen of France, by matrimonial connexion; who possessed in an eminent degree all the gifts and advantages that nature and education can bestow, and was singularly attached to the religion of her ancestors; persecuted with inveterate hatred by an unnatural brother, and other enemies of her faith, her authority and her person; was obliged to seek a refuge in England, where, instead of an asylum, she found a dreary prison. After eighteen years of confinement, she was brought to an unprecedented trial, and, upon a variety of slanderous and atrocious charges, condemned to capital punishment, which she suffered, at the age of forty-two, with truly Christian fortitude. All Europe shuddered with horror at the crime of her enemies; and Elizabeth endeavored in vain, by affected tears, to wipe away the foul stain for ever imprinted on her own character by this deed of darkness.

The other event alluded to, and which, in a political point of view, did great honor to the English queen, was her triumph over all the maritime forces of Spain. Hitherto, she had, by proper and constant encouragement, placed her own navy on a respectable footing. The famous admiral Drake successively atttacked the coasts of San Domingo, Florida, Peru and Chili, laid waste the Spanish settlements, and each time returned loaded with rich booty. Afterwards, he attacked the coast of Spain itself, and captured or destroyed eighty vessels in the harbor of Cadiz.

These attacks were too flagrant and too often repeated, not to provoke open hostilities from Philip II. After patiently suffering them for a time, he at last determined to take ample revenge, and prepared, at immense expense, a formidable fleet for the invasion and subjugation of England. It was called the *Invincible Armada*, and consisted of one hundred and fifty enormous vessels, carrying nearly three thousand cannons, with numerous troops and the flower of the Spanish chivalry. Nothing was spared to ensure the success of the expedition; England trembled at the approach of this powerful armament, but was soon relieved from her fears by the intrepidity of her navy and the skill of her admirals. They carefully shunned a general action, confining themselves to partial engagements, in which they were constantly successful. After the Spaniards had begun to suffer various losses by this mode of warfare, a multitude of incidents aided the exertions of the English, and a series of violent storms completed the defeat of the Armada (A. D. 1588).

The loss of the Spaniards in this unhappy expedition was astonishing; but it produced not the least effect upon Philip, who received the disastrous intelligence with as much tranquillity as he would have done that of a signal triumph. "I had," said he, "sent my fleet to fight against the English, and not against the winds. Let the will of God be done. I thank him that he has given me so many resources to repair this disaster."

WAR AGAIST THE TURKS.—SIEGE OF MALTA.—LOSS OF CYPRUS.—BATTLE OF LEPANTO.—A. D. 1560—1571.

We may now revert to the affairs of the Turks, and to their new efforts against the Christian nations. At the time when Philip II began to rule over Spain, Soliman, the conqueror of Rhodes and Belgrade, was still seated on the throne of Constantinople. A war having arisen between these two mighty sovereigns for the possession of Tripoli in Africa, a great naval battle was fought in 1560, in which the Turks were completely victorious. This success emboldened Soliman to undertake other conquests; and resentment urged him to attack once more the knights of St. John, the greatest enemies of his power, and to drive them, if possible, from the new residence which the liberality of Charles V had conferred on their order. Accordingly, an army composed of forty thousand choice troops, under the command of three able generals, Mustapha, Piali and Dragut, was landed in 1565 on the shores of Malta, and immediately began a siege which, from the uninterrupted vigor of the attack and defence during the space of four months, may be reckoned the most memorable event of this kind recorded in history.

The number of the knights and soldiers in the whole island did not exceed nine or ten thousand men; but the grand master, John Parisot de la Valette, was a host by himself. This worthy successor of P. d'Aubusson and Villiers de l'Isle-Adam had, like them, a mind incapable of fear even amidst the greatest dangers, an extraordinary prudence and ability much improved by experience, and an intrepid valor constantly animated by religious and patriotic principles. The plan which he adopted from the beginning of the siege, and which he followed up with unshaken constancy, was to defend, by the most vigorous exertions, every fort, every post, every inch of ground, against all the efforts of the Turks, hoping in this manner so to harass them and diminish their numbers, as finally to compel them to evacuate the island.

In consequence of this noble determination, sharp skirmishes daily took place, retarding the progress of the assailants. A little fort, called St. Elme, stopped their whole army for several weeks; nor could they take it except by sacrificing eight thousand of their bravest warriors; which made one of the Turkish generals exclaim: "If the son has given us so much trouble, what must we expect from the father!" The garrison of that fort, composed of a few knights and some hundred soldiers, exhibited a spectacle never seen before. They not only repelled the continual assaults of the Janizaries, as long as succors could be sent to them by the grand master, but, even when all communication was cut off, and when they were reduced to a small band, all wounded and scarcely able to move, they continued to defend the breach against thousands of assailants. As loss of blood and complete exhaustion did not permit them any longer to fight standing and with one hand only, they sat upon chairs and benches, and, wielding their swords with both hands, combatted to their last breath. Fort St. Elme was not taken till after the death of all the knights who had generously devoted themselves to its defence.

Still more awful and bloody was the struggle, when directed against the principal forts of the island, and against the town in which most of the knights resided. Desperate courage on the one side, undaunted intrepidity on the other, daily rendered the ramparts of Malta a theatre of unparalleled feats of arms. The energy of the grand master seemed to have been transfused into the souls of his brave companions, and the valor of the knights to have communicated itself to all the inhabitants; and such was the admiration which the spectacle of this noble heroism excited, that all classes of the people wished to partake in their glorious exploits. Thus, on one occasion, a band of two hundred boys, with their slings, powerfully contributed to repel a furious assault; on another, two sailors contrived the best measure to defeat one of the most dangerous attacks of the infidels. Persons of every age and condition labored day and night in repairing the walls or making new intrenchments, without being frightened by the sight of the swords and of the scenes of carnage, of the dead and of the dying. Even females, forgetting their usual timidity, went forward to help their fathers, husbands or sons; and fearlessly appearing upon the breach, threw upon the assailants boiling water and oil, melted pitch, fire-works, and even large stones, which they would not have been able to move in any other circumstance.

As to the grand master, besides continually watching every motion of the enemy, and attending to every part of the besieged town, he seemed to multiply himself, and to be present at every attack. The imminent danger of death, which he braved a thousand times, never caused him any fear or disturbance. Having, in one of the assaults, received a deep wound, he generously disregarded it, and continued fighting until the Turks were repelled. At another time, his nephew, a brave knight, whom he most tenderly loved, was killed at a short distance from him; La Valette contented himself with saying: "To-morrow we shall have time to weep for the loss of my nephew; let us now avenge his death, by forcing our enemies to fly." Being told that Mustapha, the commander-in-chief of the Turks, had sworn to put all the knights to the sword, and preserve the grand master alone, to bring him before the sultan, "I will prevent him from doing that," coolly replied La Valette; "if, contrary to my expectation, the result of the siege should prove fatal to us, rather than suffer myself to be taken prisoner, I would put on the dress of a common soldier, throw myself into the thickest bands of the enemy, and fight until a glorious death should unite me to my brethren."

Such noble intrepidity, ably seconded by the unabated courage of the knights and of the Maltese soldiers, could scarcely fail to be crowned at last with full success. Yet, the Turks were not dispirited; and for a long time they seemed to derive new strength and ardor from their very defeats, their shame at not having hitherto been able to subdue a handful of warriors, making them perform prodigies of valor. Besides having recourse to the ordinary modes of warfare, they every day invented new engines to annoy the besieged. Sometimes, by means of powerful machines, they threw barrels filled with gun-powder and case-shot so prepared as to burst upon the ramparts and spread death among their foes. On other occasions they pushed forward to the walls wooden towers, from the tops of which their musketeers might, with deadly aim, shoot down every human being that appeared upon the breach. The besieged, on their side, were not idle in their endeavors to prevent the effects of these murderous machines, either destroying them by the brisk fire of their artillery, or even turning them against their very contrivers. It was an awful spectacle to see the fatal barrels, before they had time to burst, hurled back upon the assailants, the wooden towers dashed in pieces, the ladders broken, and numbers of Janizaries crushed to death at the foot of the ramparts.

Not only did Mustapha, in these daily conflicts, lose many of his bravest soldiers, he had moreover the most gloomy prospect before him. Instead of reducing the inhabitants of Malta by famine, as he had, for a time, hoped to do, he began to feel the want of provisions and ammunition in his own camp. He moreover supposed the defenders of the besieged places to be much more numerous than they really were; and concluding that it was quite useless to continue the attack against the maritime forts, turned his efforts against the city called *Notable*, the capital of the whole island. Here also his hopes were entirely frustrated. In his perplexity, he resolved to resume the operations of the former siege; when a body of troops, which had been promised by the king of Spain, at length arrived from Sicily. Although it consisted of only seven thousand men, this number was sufficient to raise the siege. Despondency and consternation had already begun to spread among the Turks; panic and despair succeeded; and, after a single powerless discharge of musketry, they hastily fled to the shore and reembarked for Constantinople.

An end was thus put to the harassing and sanguinary conflict. At the arrival of the auxiliary troops and the departure of the enemy, there remained, in the residence of the knights, not more than six hundred men able to bear arms, and even most of that number were wounded. The Spanish and Sicilian allies could not refrain from tears at the sight of these truly invincible but disfigured and emaciated warriors; their beards and hair were in a dreadful state; their garments, owing to the length of time that they had not been changed, were falling to pieces, and covered with dust and gore. It was impossible, at such a spectacle, not to mingle lively feelings of compassion with the transports of joy caused by so happy a deliverance. In order to transmit to posterity an authentic memorial of these surprising events, the small town, around which so many exploits had been achieved, received the appellation of *victorious city*, which it still retains.

A great and truly noble object now occupied the mind of La Valette. In consequence of the furious siege just ended, most of the houses and fortifications were destroyed, the cannons broken to pieces or greatly damaged, the stores and arsenals without ammunition, the coffers without money, the forts without sufficient garrisons, and those parts of the country which had been the theatre of the war, almost without inhabitants; in a word, Malta was in such a state of desolation, that the bravest knights lost all hope of ever seeing it recover its former prosperity, and expressed a desire that Sicily should be selected as the residence of the order. But the grand master, who, even in the utmost distress, had never consented to yield any thing, was much less willing now to abandon that glorious soil so well fitted to produce new laurels. All the Christian princes applauded his magnanimous sentiments, and readily assisted him in carrying out his views. Having therefore chosen a favorable spot, he laid the foundation of a new city, which he destined to become the principal seat of the order of St. John; and the work was prosecuted with such diligence and activity as to be nearly completed in the space of five years. The city took the name of her illustrious founder, La Valette, and being protected both by nature and art, was deservedly reputed the strongest place in Europe.

The intelligence of these events threw Soliman into a paroxysm of rage; he trampled under foot the letter of his general, and swore vengeance against the Christians. He however thought it prudent not to attack again the heroes of Malta, and rather chose to vent his resentment against the Christian islands of the Archipelago. Afterwards, the indefatigable sultan led his Janizaries, for the fourth time, into Hungary (A. D. 1566). The storm at this period burst upon Sigeth, a small but well fortified town, whose brave garrison of three thousand men, and its intrepid commander, Count Nicolas Serini, bound themselves by a solemn oath, if they could not conquer, at least to die together in defence of their religion and their country. Never was there a generous promise better and more resolutely fulfilled. For the space of two months, they successfully resisted an army of one hundred and fifty thousand Turks, destroying upwards of thirty thousand of the foremost among the assailants. At last, finding their own number reduced to two hundred and fifty, they threw open the gates of the fortress, and rushed into the midst of the Janizaries, where they all fell whilst fighting with desperate courage; only two soldiers, who were left for dead on the field of battle, afterwards recovered from their wounds. Thus Sigeth fell under the power of the Turks, but not until it had become, as it were, a heap of ruins, without any one left to defend it any longer. Soliman had not the satisfaction to see the end of that murderous siege; his disappointment, roused to fury by so obstinate a resistance, brought on an attack of apoplexy, of which he died three days before the last conflict. As, however, the ultimate result was the consequence of his exertions, the capture of Sigeth may be justly accounted as one of the exploits, and as the last but dearly-bought victory of that renowned sultan.

Although implicit credit should not be given to all the encomiums bestowed on Soliman by the Turkish writers, since various instances of cruelty and restless ambition are found in his life, which are a stain on his memory; still it must be confessed that his reign was, at least, one of the most brilliant and successful of the Ottoman dynasty. This prince nearly equalled Charles V, his cotemporary, in activity, prudence and warlike genius. A famous conqueror and a great general in the field, he was also an able politician and a wise legislator at home; he left behind him many useful institutions; he embellished Constantinople, erected a powerful navy, protected learning, and, by his munificence, justice and liberality, not only secured to his person and government the respect of his Mahometan subjects, but even on many occasions was an object of admiration to the Christians themselves.

Selim II, who succeeded Soliman on the Turkish throne, did not posses the military qualities of most of his predecessors, and yet successfully carried on their plan of aggrandizement and conquest. Looking with a jealous eye at the rich island of Cyprus, then in the possession of the Venetians, he equipped a numerous fleet and army, in order to bring it under his power. The greater part of the country surrendered without opposition, Nicotia and Famagusta being the only places that ventured to sustain a siege. The former was taken at the expiration of seven weeks; the latter held out four months, during which the Turks lost, it is said, forty thousand men, and were obliged to fire one hundred and fifty thousand cannon balls. They sullied their victory by shocking cruelties, and the defenders of Cyprus expiated in tortures the *guilt* of their vigorous resistance. Above all, the resentment of the infidels vented itself on the intrepid commander of Famagusta, Marc Antony Bragadino, whose heroism on that occasion will be remembered by the latest posterity. This great man, being, contrary to the terms of the capitulation, carried into captivity, experienced the most barbarous treatment from the Turkish general, Mustapha, and was finally flayed alive, without betraying the least symptom of pain, but piously reciting the fiftieth psalm, until he expired in the hands of the executioner.

This barbarity of the Turks roused the indignation, while their increasing power excited the fears of Christendom. To avert the danger which threatened at once religion and civilization in Europe, Pope Pius V exerted all his faculties, authority and zeal. He, on one hand, by letters and embassies, procured the conclusion of a powerful league, consisting of his own states, the kingdom of Spain and the republic of Venice; on the other hand, he endeavored to secure victory to their cause by fervent supplications and by ordering the dismissal from the Christian host of all persons, whose vices and immorality might provoke the wrath of heaven. This being done, the combined fleet, consisting of about two hundred and forty vessels, under the command of Don Juan of Austria, a half brother to Philip II, went in search of the Turkish fleet, which was still more numerous. The belligerent parties came in sight in the gulf of Lepanto; and nearly on the same spot where Augustus and Antony had formerly contended for the Roman empire, were the Christians and the Mussulmans now about to fight for the possession of Europe.

The seventh of October 1571, witnessed one of the most terrible naval battles recorded in history. For several nours the conflict all along the line was awful, and victory uncertain. At length, the persevering courage of the confederates, the intrepidity of Don Juan and other generals, their superior skill in naval and military tactics, in fine, a strong and favorable breeze which arose just at the beginning of the battle, and carried clouds of smoke towards the Turks, gave the Christians a decisive victory.

The fierce Ottomans lost in that memorable action thirty five thousand soldiers, with their admiral and chief officers, fifteen thousand Christian slaves, about two hundred and fifty men-of-war and galleys, three hundred and seventy-two large guns, and an immense booty with which their vessels were loaded.*

So signal an overthrow every where spread terror and dismay among the Turks, chiefly in Constantinople, whereas the victory of the confederates filled the Christian world with exultation. In Rome, Toledo, and other places, it was celebrated with extraordinary rejoicings; the Venetians, above all, manifested their enthusiasm by forbidding any one to mourn for the loss of those who had perished in the glorious conflict. The conquerors, it is true, did not know how to pursue and improve their victory as much as might have been expected; yet, it cannot be denied that its result was of an immense advantage, since it proved not only a check to the progress of the Ottomans, but also the beginning of their decline, at least as a maritime power.

PHILIP II CONTINUED.—THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.—FRANCE UNDER THE LAST VALOIS AND HENRY IV.—GENERAL STATE OF EUROPE IN THE BEGINNING OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.—A. D. 1566—1618.

The prosecution of the Turkish war did not occupy the whole attention of Philip II; he was also, during the same period, and for many years after, engaged in a series of hostilities against Holland. That country, which had been dependent on Spain ever since the accession of

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* A more detailed account of the battle of Lepanto may be found in *Univers. Hist. vol.* LX;—Mignot, *Hist. de l'Empire Ottoman* (*reign of Selim* II);—*Hist. du Bas Empire, continuée par Ameilhon, vol.* XXVII;—also in the Eccles. historians, Béraut-Bercastel, and Fleury, or rather his continuator, *ad. ann.* 1571; and Alban-Butler's *Life of St. Pius V*, under the fifth of May, with the notes.

Charles V, began openly to shake off the yoke in 1566, under the pretence of political and religious tyranny. Neither the severity of the duke of Alva, nor the abilities of Don Juan, nor the heroic qualities of Alexander Farnese, duke of Parma, could reestablish in it the Spanish domination; and, in spite both of conferences and arms, the republic of Holland, or of the Seven United Provinces, was proclaimed in 1581. It rapidly increased during the first part of the following century; and, by uniting an active spirit of trade and maritime enterprise with great military skill and numerous exploits on land, it acquired such prosperity, wealth and power, as frequently to counterbalance the influence of the mightiest sovereigns of Europe. However, it was not universally acknowledged as a free and independent state before the year 1648, in the treaty of Westphalia.

The Spanish monarch was more successful in his expedition against Portugal. Not long before, under the reign of Emmanuel and John III, this kingdom had reached the height of opulence and glory. One single act of imprudence on the part of the young king Don Sebastian, in 1578, caused it not only to fall from the high rank which it held among European nations, but even to lose for a time its independence. Contrary to the advice of his wisest counsellors, that impetuous prince obstinately wished to engage in an expedition against some princes of Africa. A battle was fought, in which he displayed surprising valor, but finally met with a complete overthrow. The Portuguese troops were cut to pieces, and he himself disappeared, and was never seen afterwards. As he left no issue, the crown of Portugal was claimed by many competitors, who prepared to support their pretensions by recourse to law or by force of arms; but Philip of Spain, who was beyond comparison the most powerful of all the aspirants to the throne, overcame his rivals. Portugal was subdued in one campaign, and, with its numerous settlements in other parts of the globe, remained annexed to the Spanish monarchy during sixty years, viz: from 1580 to 1640, when a sudden and successful revolution restored it to its native princes.

By the addition of Portugal and its appendages to his hereditary dominions, Philip II became the sovereign of the most extensive monarchy that had hitherto existed. Several countries of Europe and Asia, and nearly all the regions of America until then descried, obeyed his laws; hence he was used to say, and with truth, that the sun never set for all his dominions at once. Nor was his mind unequal to the task of regulating so vast and so complicated a machine. He was continually watching over the different provinces of his amazing monarchy, there being no department of the public administration with which he was not familiarly acquainted, no affair of importance to which he did not personally attend, no minister of state, no general of his army, whose public conduct he did not diligently observe, in order to keep all within the bounds of duty.

Philip moreover exercised a considerable influence over the other states of Europe, particularly France; indeed, he cherished for a long time the hope of placing one of his children upon the French throne. That kingdom, after the vigorous reign of Henry II, had fallen into a deplorable state under his weak successors, Francis II, Charles IX, and Henry III, owing chiefly to an almost uninterrupted series of civil wars between the Catholics, who wished to maintain the ancient faith, and the Huguenots or Calvinists, who were anxious to establish their own religious system. The evil was increased, in 1572, by the massacre on St. Bartholomew's day, in which several hundred Protestants were, by an act of cruel retaliation, immolated to the resentment and vengeance of the Court.* At the death of Henry III, who fell by the sword of an assassin in 1589, Philip II endeavored, by every means in his power, to exclude the nearest heir, Henry of Bourbon and Navarre, who was a Protestant, from a throne which had always been occupied by Catholic monarchs; but the many victories of Henry, enhanced by his truly royal qualities, and finally his return to the Catholic church,* baffled the projects and frustrated the hopes of the Spanish sovereign. All obstacles were removed in 1593, and the king of Navarre, the head of the Bourbon family, was universally acknowledged king of France under the name of Henry IV; a name ever to be held, notwithstanding the individual frailties of the monarch, in grateful remembrance for the return of happiness and prosperity which it secured to this long afflicted kingdom.

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* See note E.

In the mean time, Philip II, worn down by age, infirmity and toil, was called from this world, and left his immense possessions to his son Philip III. His last moments, amidst the acute pains of a complicated disease, more and more manifested that firmness and energy of character which he had so frequently displayed during his long career. He died, after a reign of forty-two years, on the thirteenth of September, 1598. Five years later, the famous queen of England, Elizabeth, also departed this life, and was succeeded by the son of the unfortunate Mary Stuart, James of Scotland, who was really the nearest heir to the British throne, when the posterity of Henry VIII became extinct by the death of Elizabeth. Being the first who reigned over the united kingdoms of England, Ireland and Scotland, James, on that account, took the title of *King of Great Britain.*

Under these new and pacific sovereigns, Europe, generally speaking, enjoyed a profound peace during the first part of the seventeenth century. Still, a violent storm was preparing against the house of Austria, whose preponderance destroyed, in the opinion of many, the necessary equilibrium among the monarchs of Europe. It was the desire of the neighboring princes, and particularly of the French king, to weaken her power, and great preparations were already made for that purpose, when Henry IV fell by the poniard of a base assassin, on the fourteenth of May, 1610.

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* The conversion of Henry IV was not, as the infidel Voltaire presumed to assert, owing to political and interested motives, but the fruit of doctrinal conferences held in his presence. Having asked the Protestant doctors whether he could be saved in the Catholic religion, and being answered in the affirmative, he concluded that it was undoubtedly the safer step to become a Catholic. He immediately began to act up to this conclusion; and, from that time, never ceased to evince the most sincere and strong attachment to the faith which he had embraced.

This tragical event delayed for a time the project of the confederates, and plunged France into the deepest affliction. At the news of Henry's death, all labor ceased; commerce was interrupted; in the towns, especially in the capital, nothing was heard but sobs and lamentations, and country people were seen to shed torrents of tears, thus testifying their gratitude for the truly paternal affection which the good king had always manifested for this class of his subjects. It was his delight to talk with them about their toils, their profits and losses, and even their smallest concerns. He wished them to have a fowl to eat every Sunday. In a word, to promote the happiness of his people may truly be said to have been his predominant passion; hence we need not wonder that he conciliated to himself the love of the French nation, and won the admiration of all ages and countries. Even at present, the name of Henry IV reminds every one of a gracious, mild and beneficent king, who rendered himself still more commendable for the generous feelings of his heart than for all his other noble and heroic qualities.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR.—A. D. 1618—1648.

The intended war against the Austrian family, which had been postponed on account of the death of Henry IV, at length broke out in 1618, and lasted, almost without interruption, during the space of thirty years. Its commencement coincides with the beginning of the reign of Ferdinand II, an emperor whose magnanimity and other virtues won the admiration even of his enemies. His chief allies were the king of Spain, his relative, the king of Poland, and the duke of Bavaria: the principal among the belligerent powers on the opposite side were Denmark, Sweden, France and Bohemia. The two first mentioned of these four nations had hitherto been little known, except from their quarrels with each other; but they now began to take an active part, and to exert a certain influence in the general affairs of Europe.

The first manifestation of hostility in this sanguinary contest, was made by the Bohemians, who had revolted against the Austrian domination, and by Christian IV, king of Denmark, who supported them with a powerful army; but both the Danes and Bohemians were entirely overthrown by the imperial troops. In a few campaigns, Tilly and Walstein, two skilful generals, compelled the enemies of Ferdinand to desist from their hostile designs, and submit to the conditions which he thought proper to impose on them (A. D. 1629).

Unfortunately, the victorious emperor refused to comprise Sweden in the treaty of peace. This kingdom was at that time under the sway of Gustavus Adolphus, a young hero, with whose abilities, energy and resources Ferdinand II and his allies were but slightly acquainted. Deeply offended at the refusal, Gustavus immediately prepared to renew the struggle; and, like another Annibal, resolved to attack his enemies in the centre of their possessions. His very first appearance in the north of Germany, at the head of a brave and well disciplined host, inclined the scale of fortune in his favor. All fled before him, and Tilly, who attempted to stop his progress, was himself, after an obstinate engagement, completely defeated in the plains of Leipzig (A. D. 1631). A second battle was equally unfavorable to that great general, who died a few days after of his wounds, having lived, it was said, one year too long for his reputation and glory.

Walstein then assumed the chief command, and hastened with fresh troops to oppose Gustavus. The armies again met near the village of Lutzen, and fought with such animosity that victory was for a long time doubtful. At length, the Swedes, by tremendous and desperate efforts, remained in possession of the field, but lost their invincible leader, who was slain during the hottest part of the action (1632). This accident was more fatal to them than the defeat of their army would have been. For, although several able commanders, by order of their senate, continued the war with great vigor, yet they wanted his penetrating genius; and no later than the year 1634, the Swedish army was signally overthrown by the imperialists in the battle of Nordlingen. This victory of Ferdinand raised his party again, whereas the loss of eighteen thousand men weakened his opponents to such a degree, that France, their most powerful ally, was obliged, from that time, to take the principal share in the prosecution of the war.

The French throne was, at this period, occupied by the son of Henry IV, Louis XIII, a just, brave and religious prince, who had given many proofs of great personal courage and of a successful administration. Louis, it is true, did not seem much inclined of himself to make foreign conquests; but he possessed in the person of Cardinal Richelieu, a minister of state equally skilled in conceiving mighty plans, and in carrying them into execution. This powerful genius had already rendered very important services to his sovereign and country, by destroying the excessive power of some of the lords, and giving the last blow to the feudal system; by crushing the restlessness of the Huguenots, rooting out the seed of new civil wars, and subduing La Rochelle, the principal seat of discontent and rebellion; in fine, by establishing the French academy, and laying the foundation of the glory of the following reign. He had just raised the kingdom to this state of prosperity, when the Swedes experienced that defeat at Nordlingen which obliged their allies to make greater exertions against the common enemy. Hostilities were now carried on chiefly between Austria and France. As each nation possessed brave troops and skilful generals, numberless exploits were achieved on both sides; still no decisive action took place for several years, so that neither the emperor Ferdinand II on one hand, nor Louis XIII and Richelieu on the other, lived to see the termination of the war.

It continued under Ferdinand III, and during the minority of the young king Louis XIV, who began, at the age of five, a glorious reign which lasted seventy-two years. Its very beginning, in 1643, was marked by a brilliant victory. The duke of Enghien, better known under his subsequent name of prince of Condé, had been, a short time before, placed at the head of the French army. The first act of his military career was to conquer and destroy, near Rocroy in Champagne, the formidable Spanish infantry so renowned for its discipline and valor ever since the time of king Ferdinand. This victory, gained by a general scarcely twenty-two years of age, gave France a decided superiority, which the same prince, together with his rival in glory, the marshal of Turenne, strengthened more and more by his subsequent triumphs at Friburg, in 1644, Nordlingen, in 1645, and Lens, in 1648.

So many victories for one party, and losses for the other terminated in the famous treaty of Munster and Osnaburgh, commonly called the treaty of Westphalia, towards the end of 1648. By that treaty the authority of the emperor was reduced to narrower limits, and by a natural consequence, which the French plenipotentiaries endeavored in vain to avert, the Catholics lost much of their influence in Germany. Holland was formally acknowledged as an independent state, and valuable possessions were acquired to France and Sweden. Thus was peace restored in the greater part of Europe; but, the treaty of Westphalia not having been fully accepted by the Spanish king, Philip IV, who still cherished the hope of retrieving his late defeats, hostilities continued for some years longer between him and France. As to England, she had been, nearly all that time, too deeply engaged at home by dissensions and civil wars, to take any active share in these distant broils of continental Europe.

CIVIL WAR IN ENGLAND.—COMMONWEALTH.—RESTORATION.—A. D. 1625—1660.

The whole reign of James I had passed in comparative tranquillity;* but this was rather a deceitful peace, and one of those calms which prognosticate a storm. At his death (A. D. 1625), he left to his son Charles I, an empty treasury, a refractory parliament, a kingdom given up to religious disputes, and distracted by rival societies, the principal of which were the Episcopalians or Anglicans, and the Presbyterians or Puritans. James always desired to put down the latter of these two parties, but left the work to be accomplished, if possible, by his successor; and when Charles made the attempt, he met with a resistance which proved the first cause of his own ruin.

An order had been issued for the general adoption of the Anglican doctrine and liturgy even in Scotland. The Puritans, who were numerous and powerful there, boldly opposed the royal decrees, and swore to defend their manner of worship against every attack, from whatever quarter it might proceed. In order to quell the insurrection, Charles marshalled an army, and led it towards the frontiers; still, yielding to his inclination for peace, he consented to come to an agreement with the Scots, even at the risk of diminishing his authority. This act of condescension, instead of dissolving the Scottish covenant, seemed rather to give it new strength; and the covenanters grew bolder than ever, especially when they saw their cause openly supported by the English parliament, which was still more opposed to the court than themselves.

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* It was under that reign that some infuriated persons, nominal Catholics, formed the horrid project, called the *gun-powder plot*, of blowing up the parliament-house during the session. The plot was detected, and its authors met with condign punishment; unfortunately, several innocent persons were involved in their ruin, and prejudice went so far as to throw the blame upon the entire Catholic church, as if Catholics at large could be accountable for the mad conduct of nine desperadoes whose plot they never knew—or the code of Catholic principles answerable for a crime which it always condemned and abhorred.

This parliament seemed absolutely resolved to thwart the monarch in all his views, and to strip the crown of its best prerogatives. Charles yielded on many points; but, finding all his condescension of no avail in reestablishing concord and tranquillity, and moreover, never receiving the necessary subsidies, he had recourse to arms, and summoned around him those who were still attached to his person, his government, or his fortunes. The parliament also raised troops; the exasperation of both parties burst into an open flame; and civil war in every part of the realm was the dire consequence (A. D. 1642).

This revolution was at first favorable to Charles, who gained in person great advantages, and forced one of the parliamentary armies, under the command of the earl of Essex, to capitulate and surrender. But these successes of the royal cause were counteracted by the loss of the bloody battle of Marston Moor, fought in the north of England (A. D. 1644); and, on the fourteenth of June of the ensuing year, the still more fatal battle of Naseby deprived the king of nearly all his resources. Believing that there was no safer way to escape from the fury of his enemies than to take refuge among the Scots, he determined to throw himself upon their loyalty, and to surrender himself into their hands. This was running from one danger into another; the Scottish *army* (not the *nation* at large), after a short hesitation, shamefully delivered him to the English parliament for the sum of four hundred thousand pounds.

A new party had now arisen in England, very appropriately called the *Independents*, because in reality they claimed an entire independence in all matters both civil and religious. At their head were Fairfax and Cromwell, two men famous in the history of those times, the former for his valor and skill in the command of armies, the latter for his penetrating genius and wonderful talent in every sort of political and military transactions. With a boundless ambition, which he artfully concealed under the veil of modesty and religious zeal, all means, whether just or criminal, were equally good in his sight, provided they would promote the object of his designs. In a short time, his ability raised him to the chief command of the troops, his refined intrigues to the first rank in his party, and his artful ambition to the sovereign power.

Cromwell had contributed more than any one to the overthrow of the royalists in the battles of Marston Moor and Naseby. Possessing, on that account, vast influence in the army, he made himself master of the king's person, and, confining him in a prison, defeated all the attempts that were made to set him at liberty. Afterwards, the bold usurper appointed a committee, which he took care to compose of his warmest partisans, for the trial of the royal captive. Charles indeed refused to acknowledge the competency of that tribunal, and answered the absurd charges laid against him by a dignified silence or a smile of contempt; still, the proceedings went on with unusual rapidity; after a mock examination, he was outlawed, condemned to death as a tyrant and a foe to the English nation, and, in fine, executed in London on the thirtieth of January 1649. His most faithful defenders and friends soon experienced the same fate; and England saw with dismay her most distinguished lords perish on the scaffold. On this sanguinary foundation a commonwealth arose in the place of the ancient monarchy, a new constitution was published, and Cromwell was acknowledged as head of the government under the title of *Protector.*

Great and numerous were the obstacles which he had to encounter in this elevated station. No sooner had the intelligence of the king's death spread abroad, than parties were formed in Ireland, Scotland, and England itself, against the usurpers. A man of ordinary talents would have sunk under these accumulated obstacles; Cromwell overcame them all by his prudence and activity. After giving in charge to some of his generals to quell the insurrection in England, he himself rapidly passed over to Ireland, compelled the inhabitants into submission by the superiority of his forces, and, returning with the same celerity, advanced against the Scots, whom he surprised and defeated at Dunbar (A. D. 1650). This overthrow did not prevent Charles, the eldest son of the late monarch, from penetrating into England at the head of fourteen thousand men. But Cromwell closely followed him, met the royalists again near Worcester, and gained over them a complete and decisive victory; Charles succeeded, with extreme difficulty, in saving his life, and escaped into France by crossing the channel in a boat.

Cromwell returned in triumph to London, and thenceforth occupied himself in securing the prosperity of the realm by a vigorous and wise administration. Although the government was called a republic, he acted more absolutely than perhaps any English king had ever done, dissolving the parliament whenever it opposed his views and measures. Tranquillity was restored to England, literature, arts and sciences were protected, and useful laws enacted, as well against blasphemy and luxury, as for the maintenance of order and justice. Commerce also was revived, and the navy greatly increased.

Having thus secured the prosperity of his government at home, Cromwell caused it to be also respected abroad. "I wish," said he, "to see the British commonwealth as much honored by other nations, as the Roman republic once was." Accordingly, the English vessels triumphantly swept every sea; haughty conditions were imposed on the rival powers of Europe; and the Dutch, who alone ventured to question the superiority of the British flag, were soon compelled to respect it in a series of great naval battles, in the last of which they lost their celebrated admiral Van Tromp.

Cromwell received still greater honor, in beholding his alliance sought with equal eagerness by France and Spain. Between these two nations, war had already lasted more than twenty years, although of late it had begun to languish, owing to the civil feuds which disturbed the minority of Louis XIV, and divided the attention of the French court. After some hesitation, the protector preferred the alliance of France, and afforded the young king such assistance, in troops and vessels, as to destroy the equilibrium which had so long protracted the war against Spain. As a compensation for this efficient aid, and an indemnity for the expenses incurred, he required that the important city of Dunkirk should be besieged, and the keys delivered into his hands, and that France, moreover, should afford no refuge or protection to the exiled sons of Charles I.

In consequence of this treaty, preparations were made for two grand expeditions. A British fleet, under the command of Blake, went in search of the Spanish forces, and gained two victories near the shores of Spain and Africa; and Jamaica was also conquered by the English, in whose possession it has since continued. On the land, Marshal Turenne, already famous for many glorious campaigns and victories, led his army, composed of French and English troops, to the siege of Dunkirk. The Spaniards, on their side, were not idle; they approached the French lines for the purpose of raising the siege, but were entirely defeated in the celebrated battle of Dunes, the more honorable to Turenne, as he vanquished at once three able generals, viz. Don Juan the commander in chief, the Prince of Condé and the Duke of York, both of whom, discontented with the court of France, had gone over to the party of the Spaniards (A. D. 1658).

Within a few days Dunkirk capitulated, and, according to the previous agreement, was surrendered to the English. Two other victories, and the capture of several other towns, terminated that decisive campaign, which was soon followed by the conclusion of peace between Spain and France on terms very advantageous to the latter. The Prince of Condé was included in the treaty between the two crowns.

Cromwell did not witness the termination of the war, having died a short time before, just when the prosperous issue of his alliance with France had raised him to the zenith of his glory. However, neither in this nor in any other successful scheme had he ever enjoyed real happiness. From the moment in which he was invested with the supreme power to that of his death, his mind labored under a constant dread of assassination; nor were his numberless precautions and multiplied guards able to remove his fears. The nights especially he passed in a state of feverish anxiety, never sleeping twice, or more than twice in succession, in the same chamber, and taking care that, besides the principal door, there should be some other secret one for the facility of escape. He died at the age of fifty-nine (A. D. 1658), on the third of September, the anniversary of the victories obtained by him at Worcester and Dunbar, the former seven, the latter eight years before.

Almost simultaneously with Cromwell fell the form of government which he had established. Richard, his son, was, it is true, appointed *Protector* in his place; but, possessing neither the abilities nor the ambition of his father, he soon resigned the office, and the English, being at length tired of so precarious a state of things, agreed to recall among themselves the royal family of the Stuarts. The whole affair, admirably well conducted by General Monk, afterwards called duke of Albemarle, was finally accomplished in May 1660, when Charles II was, with universal satisfaction and applause, replaced upon the throne of his ancestors.

BRITISH AND FRENCH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA.

These successive changes of government were adopted without much difficulty by the numerous settlements which England already possessed in North America. It would have been impossible for these rising colonies, especially at such a distance, efficaciously to resist the course of events which took place in the mother-country; the more so, as many of the emigrants had a long and bloody struggle to maintain against the Indians, who frequently opposed with all their might the rise and progress of the English settlements. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the colonies gradually improved, and at length, by dint of labor, industry and courage, became very prosperous.

The most remarkable of them were all established under the government of the Stuarts, and in the following chronological order: *Virginia*, in 1607, by Episcopalians;—*New Amsterdam*, or *New York*, in 1614, or thereabout, by the Dutch; this colony lost the former and took the latter name in 1664 or 1665, when it passed under the power of the English;—*Massachusetts* and *Boston*, in 1620—1630;*—*Maryland*, in 1632—1634, by Catholics, through the exertions of Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, a nobleman of liberal character and distinguished abilities, and under the direction of his son Cecil, and of his brother Leonard Calvert; the city of *Baltimore* was not however built till a much later period;—*Pennsylvania* and *Philadelphia*, in 1681–1682, by the Quakers, under the celebrated William Penn, to whom that portion of the American territory was ceded by the British court as a reward for the services of Admiral Penn, his father.

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* Some years later, were founded most of the other New England States. Those of *Delaware* and *New Jersey* were first settled by Swedes and Dutch, shortly after New York. Lord Clarendon and other English emigrants commenced, in 1663—1670, the establishment of *Carolina*, but it was only in 1729 that the country was completely divided into *North* and *South Carolina*. *Georgia* was settled in 1732—1735. The other States of the union, besides those mentioned above, are of much more recent date

In these two last States, a system of equity, humanity and meekness was adopted with regard to the Indian tribes, which did great honor to the first settlers, and greatly contributed to their rapid increase and early prosperity. A still more distinguishing feature of the colony of Maryland is the example of Christian moderation and mildness which she gave to her sister colonies; an example hitherto unknown in the history of America. For, whilst Virginia and New England were dooming, the former to exile, the latter to still harsher treatment, all who dissented from their respective creeds, Lord Baltimore and his associates, without in the least admitting religious indifference, being themselves sincere Catholics, removed however all idea of religious persecution, and legally recognized from the beginning that freedom of conscience which has since been adopted by the Constitution of the United States.

It was also chiefly during the course of the seventeenth century that the French made regular settlements in those parts of North America which they had previously descried, particularly in Canada. Champlain, an active and enterprising officer, founded Quebec in 1608, and in 1642 Montreal began to rise and soon after to prosper under the active care of a colony of zealous settlers, and chiefly of the congregation of the Sulpitians, to whom the whole island was ceded about this time. Louisiana also became one of the French colonies, though somewhat later, New Orleans not having begun to exist before the year 1718. Florida belonged at that time to the Spaniards.

SPLENDOR OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

When the restoration of the Stuarts to the throne of England took place, Louis XIV of France had been king for seventeen years; but, as he fully relied upon the experience of his mother, Ann of Austria, and the consummate skill of his prime-minister, Cardinal Mazarin, he at first interfered little in the government of his kingdom. However, even at that time, he occasionally evinced such an energy of character as plainly to indicate what he might effect in a subsequent period. Mazarin died in 1661, and Louis, then twenty-three years old, took the reins of government into his own hands, and never afterwards relinquished them, nor ceased to hold them in a manner suitable to his power and dignity.

He soon verified a saying of the deceased cardinal, that there was in him sufficient *material* to make four kings. Every branch of the public administration assumed under him a grand and majestic aspect. He settled with precision the extent of power to be exercised by each one of his ministers, required them to come to an account with him at stated hours; and, whilst he encouraged them by sincere marks of confidence, carefully observed their proceedings, lest they should abuse their authority. His manner of governing, alike dignified and courteous, secured to him the respect of foreigners and the affection of his own people. Military discipline was enforced, the public revenues were managed with prudence and wisdom, and strict order was observed in the courts of justice. Safe and capacious harbors were in a short time constructed and made ready to receive all kinds of vessels; the canal of Languedoc, a work not unworthy of the genius of ancient Rome, opened an easy communication between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea, and a powerful navy was equipped to contend for the empire of the ocean with the chief maritime forces then in existence.

Under such an impulse given to every improvement, commerce and industry increased, splendid manufactories arose, which astonished the world by the beauty and elegance of their productions in porcelain, looking glasses, tapestry, etc. The academies of sciences, belles-lettres, sculpture and painting, were no sooner established than they issued master-pieces of every description. Architecture displayed all its magnificence in the palaces of the Louvre and of Versailles. All the fine arts, with the various branches of literature and useful knowledge, were encouraged, enlivened, protected both at home and abroad, no fewer than sixty learned men, in the different countries of Europe, receiving from Louis presents and other marks of esteem, with letters not less honorable to the monarch than to themselves. France alone produced at that epoch an incredible multitude of personages highly distinguished for their qualifications; and the same age which saw with admiration Condé and Turenne, Luxemburg and Villars at the head of armies, Duquesne and Tourville in the navy, Louvois and Colbert in the cabinet, beheld also with astonishment the transcendent merit of Bossuet, Fenelon, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Flechier, in sacred eloquence; of Mabillon, Montfaucon, Thomassin, Petavius, Huet, in sacred learning; of Pascal and Descartes in mathematics and philosophy; of Lamoignon and d'Aguesseau, in jurisprudence; of Corneille, Racine, Boileau, J. B. Rousseau, Lafontaine, in poetry; etc.

In a word, the reign of Louis XIV was, in every respect, the reign of taste and genius; one, during which the capital of France seemed to have become another Rome or Athens, so as to render that age, if not superior, at least equal to the most brilliant ages of antiquity. Hence the name of Louis was respected among the remotest nations of the earth; and ambassadors came from the eastern extremities of Asia to court his alliance and friendship.

Nothing however can appear so honorable to the memory of that monarch, as the great zeal which he constantly evinced for the interests of religion. He encouraged and promoted the diffusion of Christianity in various parts of the world. It was chiefly during his reign that crowds of pious and learned missionaries set out from France to preach the gospel in South and North America, in China, Persia, Egypt and other countries, where they rendered invaluable services as well to the church as to science and to the cause of humanity. In his own kingdom, he extended the same protection to all good and useful institutions, checking by severe edicts the practice of duelling and the profanations of the name of God; and also enacting various laws for the preservation of good order, tranquillity and justice. As for himself, although his personal conduct was not always irreprehensible, he however always remained strongly attached to religion, always set the example of modesty in prayer and profound respect in church, and ultimately atoned for the faults of youth by the practice of the most solid virtues and genuine piety in a more advanced age.

With regard to the glory of arms, never perhaps did either France or any other country behold a greater and more brilliant display of military talents than under the reign of Louis XIV. This will be the object of the following sections.

WAR OF FLANDERS—OF CANDIA, ETC.—A. D. 1664—1669.

The reader has already noticed the glory and advantages acquired by France in the last war against Spain and Austria. Spain was again humbled, in 1667–1668, by the arms of Louis, and such was the rapidity of his conquests both in Franche Comté and Flanders, that a confederacy of the neighboring nations was thought necessary to stop his progress. A league was therefore concluded, under the name of the triple alliance, by England, Holland and Sweden; the contracting powers agreeing among themselves to settle the differences of France and Spain upon reasonable terms capable of reconciling their opposite pretensions. By a subsequent treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, the French monarch was permitted to retain his conquests in Flanders, and the Spanish king, now Charles II, was contented with the restoration of Franche Comté.

In the year preceding the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1667), a similar transaction had taken place at Breda between the English and the Dutch, for the adjustment of their own differences. A new contest had previously arisen among them, which raged for some years with great fierceness, much bloodshed, and enormous expense; several naval battles had been fought, equally obstinate and undecisive; however, the final result was favorable to the English, who obtained from the Dutch, by the treaty of Breda, the unqualified cession of extensive and valuable settlements in America.

Louis XIV was not so much engaged in these great concerns of war and peace with his neighbors as not to take an active share in the interests of more distant nations. In the year 1664, he had sent a body of troops to assist the emperor Leopold against a fresh invasion of the Turks. This and other succors granted by different princes enabled Montecuculli, the commander in chief of the Austrian forces, to fight, near the river Raab, the celebrated battle of St. Gothard, in which the Turks were entirely defeated, with the loss of twenty thousand men, and compelled to postpone their projects of invasion.

Four years later, a similar though less prosperous assistance was sent by the French king to the Venetians, for the defence of the island of Candia now vigorously attacked by the same infidels. The siege, or rather blockade of the capital, also called Candia, had already lasted twenty years, when the Grand-Vizier, Achmet Kiuperly, determined to bring it, by redoubled efforts, to a speedy issue. He himself landed in the island, and closely invested the town with an army not less formidable for its numbers than for its valor and discipline. The siege still lasted two years and a half, being thus one of the most celebrated of either ancient or modern ages, for the obstinacy of both parties and the mighty exertions performed on each side. The besiegers stormed the place no fewer than fifty-six times; and, in the intervals, their artillery, consisting of three hundred cannons, played with such incessant fury, as to make the ramparts of Candia so many heaps of ruins. The besieged, on their part, fired against their foes upwards of five hundred thousand bombs or bullets, expended fifty thousand barrels of gunpowder, and, besides repelling assaults, made ninety-six sallies against the Turkish intrenchments.

Such warfare could not fail to be extremely murderous. According to the most moderate account, the Turks, before they could take possession of Candia, lost one hundred and twenty, and the Christians thirty thousand soldiers. There was not, all round the city, one spot which had not been moistened by the blood of many heroes. But the garrison being now reduced to a handful of men, mostly wounded, or exhausted by their exertions, it appeared evident that the place could hold out no longer; and the Venetian commanders were at length induced to surrender it upon the terms of an honorable capitulation, which Kiuperly granted and faithfully executed (A. D. 1669). In all this, the Grand-Vizier acted with a moderation which did him no less honor than his manner of conducting and concluding the siege. This great man, still more to be admired as a minister of state than as a general, presently applied to repair in the island the numberless evils which it had suffered from so furious a war, and his efforts aided by the natural salubrity of the climate and fertility of the soil, were soon attended with complete success. He then returned to Constantinople, where, under the young sultan Mahomet IV, he continued to govern the state with prudence and ability until the moment of his death, which happened in 1676.

To return to Louis XIV, this monarch was more successful in checking the depredations of the Algerine pirates than he had been in saving Candia from the arms of the Ottomans. Squadrons which he dispatched at different times, obliged those pirates to disappear for a while, and restored security to commerce on the Mediterranean Sea.

WAR OF HOLLAND—AND SUBSEQUENT EVENTS TILL THE LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG.—A. D. 1672—1687.

A still greater design engaged at the same time the attention of Louis. The Dutch having of late given him many causes of complaint, he resolved to humble their pretensions and chastise their ingratitude. In the year 1672, a well disciplined force of one hundred and ten thousand men, commanded by the king in person, and by Condé and Turenne under him, crossed the Rhine, and overran a great part of Holland with little or no opposition. Their march was so rapid and successful, that, in the space of two months, three of the seven united provinces and forty fortified towns were captured. The army continuing to advance, and the conqueror refusing to grant peace except on rigorous and humiliating terms, the Dutch, in their despair, came to the determination of opening their dikes and inundating the country. This bold measure saved them from utter ruin, and the French, finding themselves in the midst of waters, were at last forced to a retreat.

On the other hand, William, prince of Orange, who had been just appointed stadtholder of the republic, was using all his efforts to rouse the great European powers against Louis XIV. His exertions easily induced the king of Spain, the emperor of Germany, and the elector of Brandeburg, all of whom were alarmed at the views of the

French monarch, to declare in favor of the Dutch; England alone remained at this time an ally to France, and that for two years only. In 1673, great naval battles were fought in the channel between the fleet of Holland and the combined fleets of England and France, without any considerable advantage for either party. Three other engagements which took place on the Mediterranean Sea, were more decisive; in the first, the celebrated Dutch admiral, Ruyter, was worsted by the French under Duquesne; in the second, he lost his life near Messina, a maritime town of Sicily; and shortly after, his fleet, attacked for the third time, was almost entirely destroyed (A. D. 1676).

Still more important events happened on land, chiefly along the frontiers of Germany and Flanders. Franche Comté now became inseparably annexed to the French crown, being a second time subdued by the king, who commanded in person an army on that side. Condé, with another, attacked near Senef the united forces of the allies, surprised their rear, and, before it could receive reinforcements, cut it in pieces. He then bore down upon the main body of their troops, and, after a sharp engagement, forced them to abandon the field of battle. Not satisfied with this, and, like Cæsar, accounting nothing to have been done as long as there remained something to do,* the victorious prince pushed forward, and, for the third time, attacked the confederates in a strong position, where all their forces were assembled under the command of the prince of Orange. Here the conflict was most obstinate and bloody, the slaughter on both sides being carried on from ten in the morning till eleven at night, so as to cost the lives of twenty-seven thousand combatants. The allies, though not positively defeated, retired first from this melancholy scene of carnage, and perceiving that they were yet too closely followed by the French, withdrew to a greater distance from the frontier (A. D. 1674).

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* Nil actum credens, quùm quid superesset agendum.
Lucan, *lib.* II, *l.* 657.

Whilst Condé drove his opponents before him in the Netherlands, Turenne, with twenty thousand men, had to oppose, near the Rhine, sixty thousand German troops, who aimed at nothing less than the conquest of Alsace and Lorraine, whence they might, after winter, strike terror into the very heart of France. The French general, who had until then separately defeated the different bodies of their army before a junction could be effected by them, now seemed to be frightened at the approach of their joint numbers so superior to his own. He therefore left the banks of the Rhine, and retiring as far as the confines of Lorraine, abandoned the whole province of Alsace to the enemy. This retreat, though admirably well conducted, and achieved without the loss of a single man, seemed contrary to the promise which Turenne had previously made to save the French territory from invasion, and was to every one a subject of astonishment, and the more so as he had, at the same time, countermanded fifteen thousand men who were advancing through Lorraine to reinforce his army.

In the mean while, the German troops freely overran all Alsace, choosing the best positions for their winter quarters, and acting with as much security as if they had been in their own native land. This was exactly the opportunity that Turenne wanted for the execution of a design which he had been maturing for two months. Having divided his troops into different bodies, he put them all in motion in the dead of winter, and, without disclosing his intention to any person in the army, commanded them to march on by different and difficult roads across mountains and defiles, and to meet at the same time and place, both which were specified. After a month of separation and painful marches, they found themselves all collected in one spot, with Turenne at their head, not far from the first quarters of the enemy.

The chief commanders of the allies refused to believe the first information that was given them of the return of the French; but their incredulity was soon obliged to yield to the evidence of the fact. Their posts were briskly attacked and obliged to surrender, their scattered troops fell into the hands of the assailants, and those only who had been stationed at a great distance, avoided the snare laid for their destruction. Such as could escape, precipitately retreated towards Colmar, where their leaders had appointed the general rendezvous. Although their number had been greatly diminished, it still surpassed that of the conquerors; and having, besides, taken a very advantageous position, they could scarcely believe that the French would attack them in this their last and strongest intrenchment. But Turenne was too skilful either to lose the opportunity of striking a decisive blow, or to forget any thing that might ensure success. No sooner had he arrived in sight of the enemy, than he posted the greater part of his forces just opposite to their front; and he himself, making a wide circuit with some squadrons and regiments, suddenly appeared on their flank. The attack then commenced, and was conducted, on the side of the French, with such vigor and skill, that the dispirited imperialists soon began to waver; a general flight ensued, and the sad remnant of their forces availed themselves of the darkness of the night to retire to Strasburg, whence, by recrossing the Rhine, they speedily returned to their own territory.

This wonderful campaign filled up the measure of Turenne's reputation and glory. In hearing its details, not only France, but all Europe was filled with admiration;* especially when from a letter written two months before by the marshal himself to the secretary of state, it became publicly known, that so many encampments and marches, even the movements of the allies and the ultimate result of the expedition, had been foreseen and prepared in his mind exactly as they happened.

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* See Anquetil, *Hist. de France, ad ann.* 1674;—and Raguenet, *Histoire de Vicomte du Turenne, p.* 249.

The ensuing year (1675) again beheld Turenne at the head of the French army near the Rhine. He had now to fight against the earl of Montecuculli, an opponent in every way worthy of him on account of his consummate ability and experience. During four successive months, these two great men exhausted against each other all the stratagems and resources of military tactics, without either of them being able, all that time, to surprise his enemy in any fault or inconsiderate measure. Turenne, however, by his masterly manœuvres began to obtain some slight advantage, gradually gaining ground, and pushing the Germans from station to station, till they reached the village of Salsbach. Here he made his last preparations to give them battle, and was already expressing to those around him his full confidence of victory, when, at the commencement of the cannonade, a bullet struck him dead on the spot (27th of July, 1675). The whole army bewailed with bitter tears the loss of that incomparable leader, whose beneficence, generosity and other Christian as well as military virtues had gained their most devoted affection. His death was equally lamented through all France; and Louis, the better to honor his memory, caused him to be buried with extraordinary pomp in the sepulchre of the French kings at St. Denis, a privilege which had been granted to no private individual before, except to Du Guesclin, in the time of king Charles V.

Immediately after the death of Turenne, in order to compensate his loss, if possible, and fill his place in the army, no fewer than eight new marshals were created; but Condé was then in truth the only general capable of following up with success the plan of the deceased hero. He not only stopped the progress of the imperialists, who had once more invaded Alsace, but obliged them to retire again beyond the Rhine; after which he himself was compelled by the gout to withdraw from the army. Montecuculli also resigned the command of the imperial troops, not judging it worthy of his reputation to fight against newly appointed generals, after he had had the honor of opposing Turenne and Condé. Thus the year of our Lord 1675 closed the military career of three among the chief heroes of *modern times;* just as the year 183 B. C. terminated that of Annibal, Scipio and Philopemen, three of the most illustrious generals of *antiquity.*

Condé and Turenne left behind them skilful disciples in the art of warfare; and Créqui, Luxemburg and others maintained the superiority which the French monarch had already acquired. The king himself, with his brother, the duke of Orleans, frequently appeared at the head of his armies, and gained so many advantages, that the allies were at length induced to come to a treaty of peace, which they all signed at Nimeguen, on the conditions which he proposed (A. D. 1678–'79). It was then that the surname of *Great* was conferred upon Louis for his manifold triumphs, military and political, over the multitude of his enemies.

Even the time of peace was improved by the victorious monarch to consolidate his power at home, and to extend it abroad. He deprived his Huguenot subjects of the means of exciting in France new disturbances and civil wars, by revoking the privileges which Henry IV had been compelled to grant them at Nantes in 1598.* Genoa, Tripoli and Algiers having dared to brave his authority were so severely bombarded by his navy as to leave them no other resource than to send deputies to apologise for their conduct. Nor did he act less vigorously on land against Strasburg, then a free town, which had been repeatedly guilty of a breach of faith in his regard; twenty thousand men suddenly invested it, and in his name took immediate possession of that city, one of the most important in Europe for its position and strength.

* See note F.

LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG.—A. D. 1686—1697.

This continual increase of power again alarmed the neighboring states, and a new league, destined to check it, was formed at Augsburg in 1686, by the emperor of Germany, the king of Spain, the republic of Holland, etc. Louis might have found an ally in the king of England James II, who had lately succeeded his brother Charles II; but James, by granting universal liberty of conscience in his kingdom, and endeavoring in particular to do justice to the hitherto oppressed Catholics whose religion he had embraced, incurred the aversion of his other subjects. Seeing himself betrayed and almost universally abandoned, whilst his son-in-law, the famous William of Orange, advanced to dethrone him, he fled, and sought refuge in France; so that the whole effort of the league of Augsburg, now rendered still more formidable by the accession of England, was directed exclusively against the French monarch.

The first campaigns produced few important events; but, in 1690, the struggle became most animated in the various provinces which were the theatres of the war. The exiled king having, with a strong armament, passed over to Ireland, where the bulk of the population was favorable to his cause, attacked with more resolution than prudence the formidable force of his enemy near the river Boyne. The Irish and French began indeed to fight bravely, but without much order; and victory soon declared in favor of superior numbers aided by valor and discipline. James retreated, and giving up too soon all further hope of success, departed from Ireland, which in a short time was entirely surrendered to the conquerors. Many however of its inhabitants, through a heroic attachment to a dethroned and fugitive prince, followed him into France, which they accustomed themselves to consider as their own country, and whose battles they fought in subsequent years with such determined valor, that her great monarch bestowed on them the flattering name of *his brave Irish.*

Just at the time of the defeat of James in Ireland, an important action took place at sea. Admiral Tourville attacked in the channel, near the Isle of Wight, the combined fleets of England and Holland, and, with very trifling loss on his side, burnt or captured fifteen of their vessels. He was not so fortunate two years after (1692). Having to oppose, off Cape La-Hogue, ninety or ninety-nine sail under the command of admiral Russel, with only sixty-three, or, as some say, only forty-four ships of the line, he maintained indeed the unequal contest for twelve hours, but could not prevent fifteen or seventeen of his finest vessels from being destroyed by the English. This was a fatal blow to the French navy, of which France at this period was justly proud. England, on the contrary, recovered her maritime preponderance, and all the hopes of James II for the recovery of his kingdom were extinguished for ever.

The defeat of La-Hogue was the only severe check then suffered by the arms of Louis XIV; the expeditions of his land forces were much more prosperous, and, for the space of several years (1690—1695), offered one continued series of victories and conquests. Whilst the king took in person the important places of Mons and Namur in the Netherlands, the dukes of Noailles and Vendôme subdued a considerable part of the province of Catalonia in Spain; Marshal Catinat completely defeated the duke of Savoy at Stafarda and Marsiglia, and conquered nearly all his dominions: in fine, the marshal of Luxemburg, by mere superiority of talent, gained the splendid victories of Fleurus, Steinkirk and Nerwinde, over the chief army of the confederates, taking from them so great a number of colors, that these trophies, being sent to Paris, and serving to ornament the cathedral, acquired for the victorious general the singular but honorable appellation of *Tapissier de Notre Dame.*

So many triumphs reflected immense glory on France; but her very victories, which she did not obtain without great exertions and expense, gradually exhausted her strength, whereas the allies, from their superior numbers, were like a hydra, not less powerful and formidable after than before their defeats. This chiefly appeared at the death of Marshal Luxemburg, whom an attack of apoplexy carried off in the beginning of the year 1695.* The confederates availed themselves of his absence from the French army, to besiege and retake the important city of Namur. Both parties being now tired of the war, nothing of great consequence was performed on either side during the ensuing year 1696; France, however, made in 1697 a new and vigorous effort, which enabled her generals to obtain some advantages in Catalonia and Flanders. Moreover, her naval squadrons, under the command of Tourville, d'Estrées, Forbin, Duguay-Trouin and John Bart, all of them excellent mariners, every where annoyed the commerce of the enemy, and bore off immense prizes from the maritime towns and colonies of England, Holland and Spain.

These multiplied losses, and the withdrawing of the duke of Savoy from the confederacy, at length induced the allied powers to accept of the moderate terms which Louis XIV had for a long time been offering to them. On the twentieth of September 1697, a treaty of peace was signed at Ryswick, by which the victorious monarch consented to resign nearly all his late conquests, especially those made upon the Spanish territories. Many persons found fault with that great moderation, the secret causes of which they did not perceive; but time soon disclosed the wisdom of the king's measures and the depth of his policy.

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* At that awful moment, this general, one of the most skilful, active, and successful that France ever produced; who never experienced a defeat, and who incessantly filled the world with the renown of his military exploits; this great man publicly acknowledged the illusion and emptiness of all earthly glory. "Alas!" he exclaimed, "what will my victories avail me at the tribunal of my sovereign Judge? Would to God that I could offer him, instead of so many useless laurels, the merit of a cup of water given to the poor in his name!"

SUCCESSION OF SPAIN.—DEATH OF LOUIS XIV.

A. D. 1700—1715.

Charles II, king of Spain, being about to die without issue, appointed for his heir and successor the duke of Anjou, his grand-nephew by his sister Mary Theresa, and grand-son to Louis XIV. The French court, after mature deliberation, admitted the important though dangerous inheritance, and the duke was proclaimed, in the year 1700, king of Spain, Naples and West Indies, under the name of Philip V. This momentous transaction excited the jealousy and awakened the fears of Europe, and particularly of the German emperor, Leopold I, who claimed the same succession for his second son, the archduke Charles. In the course of two or three years, Holland, England, Prussia, Savoy and Portugal, either from an apprehension that the house of Bourbon might become too powerful, or from a desire of their own aggrandizement, were induced to embrace the party of the emperor. The allies of France and Spain were the electors of Cologne and Bavaria; neutrality was observed only by the Ecclesiastical State, Venice and Switzerland. As this was also the time when Charles XII, king of Sweden, engaged in an obstinate and bloody contest against Poland and Russia, it thus happened that the earliest period of the eighteenth century beheld the blaze of war rekindled throughout nearly all Europe, so as to spread its ravages from Gibraltar to the northern pole.

The British king, William III, who had been the principal ringleader in the two last confederacies against France, was again preparing to take a prominent part in this new league; but he died just in the beginning of the war (A. D. 1702), with the reputation of a skilful though unfortunate general, of whom it has been said that none perhaps could boast of having lost more battles. His chief qualification was that of a profound politician; and, upon the whole, he proved to be the most successful as well as the most constant opponent of Louis XIV. The death of that prince caused, however, no alteration in the plan of the allies; his views were followed up by his sister-in-law, Anne, who succeeded him on the throne, and his absence from the army was more than compensated by the duke of Marlborough at the head of the English, and by Prince Eugene of Savoy at the head of the imperial troops. These were the two great generals destined to interrupt the long course of the prosperity of Louis.

France, it is true, also possessed at that time skilful and brave commanders, among whom the duke of Vendôme and Marshal Villars were conspicuous; both gained several advantages during the first campaigns; but as they could not be present at every point occupied in this complicated warfare, the year 1704 witnessed a total change of fortune. Eugene and Marlborough having united their forces, attacked, near the village of Blenheim, the combined armies of the French and Bavarians, commanded by the elector-duke and by Marshals Tallard and Marsin. The battle was a decisive one; the Germans and English lost indeed twelve thousand men, but the French and Bavarians lost about forty thousand, including prisoners and the slain and wounded. The artillery, ammunition, baggage, in a word, every trophy that can distinguish a complete triumph, fell, with Marshal Tallard, into the hands of the victors. Moreover, the whole electorate of Bavaria became their prize; and not only were the vanquished driven from the plains of Hochstadt near the Danube to the banks of the Rhine, but even the remnant of that army, which had first spread terror to the gates of the Austrian capital, was obliged to take shelter within the frontiers of France. The conquerors, finding no further obstacle, crossed the Rhine, entered Alsace, and the strong place of Landau surrendered to them before the close of the campaign; whilst, in a very distant quarter, the English captured also the important fortress of Gibraltar, which has ever since remained in their power.

Louis XIV possessed in an eminent degree that Christian fortitude which enables the soul to bear misfortunes with composure and resignation. Although accustomed to victory, he received without dismay the sad intelligence of the ruin of his army at Blenheim, and took the most vigorous steps to check the progress of the allies. Understanding that the duke of Marlborough meant to carry the war, by the river Moselle, into the heart of France, he assembled on that side an army of seventy thousand men under Villars, whose conduct was so masterly, that he prevented Marlborough from effecting any measure of consequence during the whole of the year 1705. In Italy likewise, the French under Vendôme maintained their superiority against all the efforts both of Prince Eugene and the duke of Savoy.

The ensuing year (1706) presented one continued series of defeats and losses for France and Spain. In the peninsula, Philip V had the mortification to see his fairest provinces conquered by the allies, his very capital invaded, and his rival, the archduke Charles, proclaimed king in his place. In the Netherlands, Marlborough completely defeated Marshal Villeroi in the battle of Ramillies, which was followed by the reduction of all Brabant and nearly all Spanish Flanders. The sudden overthrow of the French armies in Italy was the finishing stroke of that eventful year, the most singularly disastrous perhaps that France ever experienced. The duke of Vendôme having been recalled to oppose Marlborough on the northern frontier, the command of the troops in Piedmont was given to the duke of Orleans, assisted by the duke of La Feuillade and Marshal Marsin, all of them full of zeal and courage, but destitute of the talent and experience of the departed general. They were besieging Turin, when Prince Eugene, by a masterly and successful march, arrived from Germany at the head of fresh forces to relieve the town. The French were attacked, and, in spite of their courageous resistance, conquered in their intrenchments. Their loss on the field was dreadful, their defeat entire; and the battle, as disastrous at least as those at Ramillies and Hochstadt, cost them all their conquests in Italy.

Never had the arms of the conquering Louis received so severe a check as during this fatal campaign. He made proposals of peace suggested by his situation, and yet could not satisfy the enemies of France, who, elated with past success, expected greater advantages from the continuation than from the cessation of hostilities. His affairs, however, as well as those of Philip V, seemed to take a more favorable turn in 1707, when Marshal Villars defeated the imperialists at Stolhofen, and Marshal Berwick gained, at Almanza in Spain, a splendid victory over the united troops of the English, Dutch and Portuguese. But this return of good fortune did not last long; Philip was again driven from the capital of his kingdom, and obliged to fly before his rival; in Flanders, a hundred thousand men, under the dukes of Burgundy and Vendôme, were routed at Oudenard by Eugene and Marlborough; and neither that numerous army, nor the heroic exertions of Marshal Bouflers, could prevent the victorious generals from taking the city of Lille, the strongest bulwark of France in that direction.

The dreadful winter of 1709 served to increase the misfortunes of the French nation. Nearly all the fruit trees were frozen, and the harvest having failed, distress and famine became so general as to render it scarcely possible to provide a scanty sustenance for the troops. It was under these trying circumstances that they had to fight against the superior force of the allies at Malplaquet; and yet such was their ardor for the combat, that, although they had spent the day before without eating, they threw away half of the bread which they had just received, in order to rush the sooner against the enemy. The conflict was extremely fierce and bloody, the French especially fighting with desperate courage, till Marshal Villars being dangerously wounded, they began to give way; but although they left the field, their retreat after the battle was so well conducted by Boufiers, that not one man was taken prisoner. This victory of the allies, if victory it may be called, cost them the lives of twenty thousand men; the French, though they retreated, had not lost half that number.

The campaign not having been very unfavorable to Louis, he thought he could again without dishonor ask for peace; among other conditions he was required not only to abandon the cause of his grand-son, but even positively to concur in dethroning him and expelling him from Spain. At the news of this base and shocking proposal, the king exclaimed that, since he must have war, he preferred to carry it on against his enemies rather than against his children. The whole nation, equally indignant at the haughtiness of the allies, approved of his generous resolution and appeared ready to sacrifice their property and lives for the honor of the kingdom, the glory of their aged monarch, and the support of a just and necessary contest. In conformity with these sentiments, new soldiers enlisted for the army, and money was still found to bear the expenses of the war.

Philip V, who had also been reduced to the greatest distress in his disputed kingdom of Spain, displayed the same constancy and obtained the same success. Well aware that his grand-father could not furnish him with troops, he contented himself with asking for the services of the duke of Vendôme, a general in whom he placed entire confidence. His hopes were quickly realized: the duke had no sooner arrived upon the Spanish territory, than soldiers, through esteem for his well-known abilities, flocked to his standard from all sides; in a short time, he had collected an army of thirty thousand men, with whom he retook Madrid, and immediately went in search of the confederates, to give them battle. Having overtaken them on the ninth of December (1710), he first surprised a body of five thousand English, who were all made prisoners with their general Stanhope, and, on the following day, gained over the earl of Starenberg the decisive though long disputed victory of Villa Viciosa, which secured the Spanish crown upon the head of Philip. This prince was present in the battle, and fought with great courage; when worn out with fatigue, he slept upon the most glorious bed that a conqueror ever had, a bed made, by order of Vendôme, of banners taken from the enemy.

Another unexpected event greatly attracted the attention of the politicians of the age. The emperor Joseph I, who in 1705 had succeeded his father Leopold on the German throne, died in 1711, and his brother the archduke, who had so long contended for the sceptre of Spain, became emperor under the name of Charles VI. This entirely changed the prospect of the war; for, had this prince been allowed to reign both over Spain and the empire, that balance of power for the preservation of which nearly all Europe had risen against the house of Bourbon, would have been effectually destroyed by the unavoidable preponderance of the house of Austria. Influenced by this and other considerations, Great Britain began to listen to overtures of peace from France, and, besides dismissing Marlborough from the command of the army, gradually withdrew her forces from the confederacy.

This was an important point; but, as the remaining allies still maintained at the northern frontier a formidable force under the command of Prince Eugene, and kept France in constant danger of invasion, much was yet to be feared for that monarchy. The king himself, with all his firmness, could not conceal his anxiety when Villars took leave of him to go and rejoin the army in Flanders.

"Sire," said the marshal with emotion, "this is your last army!" The king answered: "I rely upon your zeal, and upon the bravery of my troops. Go, and fight the enemy wherever you can find him. If, by some accident, you happen to be conquered, write to me alone; I know the devotedness of my people; I will raise a hundred thousand soldiersmore; and we will go together, either to repair all our disasters at once, or bury ourselves under the ruins of our monarchy" (A. D. 1712).

This magnanimous design was never put in execution, as it soon became known that Villars, by a skilful and bold attack, had destroyed the army of Prince Eugene at Denain. The different posts of that army being too distant from each other, the French successively assaulted them with equal promptness and success, bore down every obstacle, and, besides destroying the enemy's best troops, took a great number of prisoners, with a prodigious quantity of ordnance, ammunition, provisions, etc. This brilliant victory not only saved France from utter ruin, but suddenly gave her a superiority of which it was no longer in the power of her enemies to deprive her, and, being followed by the rapid conquest of several towns or fortresses, accelerated the conclusion of peace. It was signed at Utrecht in 1713 by nearly all the belligerent powers, who agreed upon a variety of mutual concessions, the principal of which was the solemn recognition of Philip V as king of Spain and of the West Indies. The emperor, his rival, was offered, in compensation for the loss of Spain, several valuable provinces in Italy and the Netherlands; still, of all the allies, he was the only one who refused to ratify the treaty. Hostilities therefore continued for some time longer along the banks of the Rhine, till Villars having gained new and important advantages over Prince Eugene, Charles VI thought it prudent to yield. A treaty was then concluded at Radstad (1714) between that prince and France, upon terms substantially the same, yet a little less favorable to him than those which he had rejected at Utrecht.

Thus did Louis XIV, after a long series of disasters, secure by his courage and unshaken constancy a peace more glorious than that which he had obtained at Ryswick by the splendid victories of Luxemburg and Catinat. One year later (1715), this monarch, by far the most conspicuous of his age, this great king, to whom, on account of his zeal for religion, so little justice is done by many writers, ended at the age of seventy-seven a magnificent reign of seventy-two years. He had lately seen most of the princes of his family, among others the pupil of the immortal Fenelon, descend before him into the grave; their loss, though most painful to his paternal feelings, he had sustained with his usual firmness and Christian magnanimity; the approach of his own death had no greater power to frighten or even disturb his noble soul. Nothing then appeared in him but piety, meekness and resignation. His last moments were those of a truly Christian and great monarch; of one who humbly acknowledges his faults in the hope of obtaining the divine mercy; who willingly leaves all earthly honors because he knows their emptiness; and quits this life even with joy, because he expects a much better and happier one in the heavenly kingdom.

DECLINE OF THE TURKS.—A. D. 1683—1718.

We shall now, after a long interruption, revert to the affairs of the Turks. The battle of Lepanto had long since proved that their progress could be checked; and the defeats which they afterwards experienced in Hungary and Poland, were not less calculated to remove from their minds the notion that all Europe must pass under their sway. Still, that warlike ardor which had so long animated their troops, still subsisted among them, and, being again stirred up by the conquest of Candia, could not be extinguished by the new losses which they suffered in Poland from the great general Sobieski. The Janizaries loudly called for new combats; and in 1683, Vienna, the capital of Austria, was invested by two hundred thousand men, Turks and Tartars. As there was not in all Germany a force sufficient to oppose such a host of enemies, the emperor Leopold with his family fled at their approach; despondency and consternation reigned every where; and, though Vienna possessed a brave garrison, and an excellent commander in the earl of Starenberg, the ruin of that city seemed inevitable.

In this new danger to which Christendom was exposed, Pope Innocent XI had raised his voice to solicit the succor of Catholic princes and nations, applying chiefly to the great Sobieski, whose numerous exploits and conspicuous virtues had lately raised him to the throne of Poland. That hero had several subjects of complaint against Leopold; but, generously sacrificing his resentment to the public good, he hastened at the head of twenty-four thousand warriors, and joined the imperial troops commanded by the duke of Lorraine. As soon as their union was effected, they descended the mountains, and attacked the Turkish camp at three different points. The Turks, seized with a sudden panic, were routed almost without resistance; their spirits had already drooped in consequence of the length of the siege, and the numerous blunders of their general Kara Mustapha; and now their flight was so precipitate that they left behind them, among other spoils, one hundred thousand tents, three hundred pieces of artillery, and nearly five thousand barrels of gunpowder.

The conquerors, not satisfied with the liberation of Vienna and of all Germany, were eager to improve their victory by a warm pursuit of the fugitives. During this expedition, king Sobieski having on one occasion attacked the Turks too hastily, was repulsed with great loss; but he took ample revenge two days after, by cutting in pieces a body of twenty-five thousand men near the banks of the Danube. He then returned to Poland, leaving the conduct of the war to the brave duke of Lorraine, who not only continued to drive the Turks before him, but also made important and extensive conquests. These advantages were secured by a new and brilliant victory gained (A. D. 1687) in the plains of Mohats, the very same spot on which the Austrians and Hungarians had experienced an entire overthrow one hundred and sixty years before.

During the following campaigns, until 1698, and also at the renewal of the war in 1716, the house of Austria, well served all that time by zealous and skilful generals, again defeated the Ottomans in several battles. Their most formidable enemy, during this period, was Prince Eugene of Savoy, who gained over them the decisive victories of Zenta, Peterwaradin and Belgrade. These bloody contests ended in the treaties of Carlowitz (1699) and Passarowitz (1718), both of which showed the enormous losses lately sustained by the Turks, and the incontestable superiority now possessed by Christian Europe over their once dreaded and formidable empire.

RISE OF PRUSSIA AND RUSSIA.—PETER THE GREAT.—CHARLES XII, KING OF SWEDEN.—A. D. 1689—1725.

The rapid decline of the Turks in the scale of power and political importance, coincided with the sudden rise of Prussia and Russia to a high rank among the European nations. Christianity and civilization had begun to be introduced into Prussia towards the close of the crusades; since that time, it had been governed by the grand masters of the Teutonic order, and then by the princes of the house of Brandenburg, under the title of dukes. In 1701, it arose to the dignity of a kingdom, the title of *king* being then conferred by the emperor of Germany on the elector of Brandenburg, Frederic I. Prussia became flourishing and powerful during the reign of the next monarch, Frederic William, and still more so under his son and successor, Frederic II, whom we shall see, after a short time, giving a strong and lasting impulse to the general affairs of Europe.

Russia is also known to have been governed by a long series of dukes, and of princes called *Czars*, under whom it remained almost totally uncivilized, until the accession of Peter I, which took place in 1689. That prince, possessed of an active mind and a superior genius, incessantly applied himself to improve the condition of his nation, and to render it conspicuous above the neighboring states. He twice left his dominions, and travelled through different countries, in order to acquire, by experience, a knowledge of the various arts, institutions and practices which it might be useful to introduce among his subjects. Being attacked by conspirators and rebels, he overcame them all, and punished them with inexorable severity.

In the year 1699, Peter formed with the kings of Poland and Denmark a coalition against Charles XII, king of Sweden, in the hope of wresting some provinces from that young prince, then only in his eighteenth year; but it soon appeared that the allied monarchs had relied too much for success upon his youth. Charles already united the talents of a general with the intrepidity of a warrior. Fired with indignation, and seconded by his brave Swedes, he successively overran Denmark, Saxony and Poland, crossing rivers, capturing towns, defeating armies, and carrying every thing before him. So continual and decisive were his victories, that the king of Denmark was very soon forced to accept such conditions as it pleased Charles to impose on him; and the king of Poland, who had offered a greater resistance, found himself compelled to resign his crown to Stanislaus Leckzinski, whom the conqueror protected.

The exertions of the Swedish hero against the Russians were also for a long time extraordinarily successful. He defeated them in several engagements, particularly in the famous battle of Narva, where, with only eight thousand men, he destroyed an army of eighty thousand Muscovites, fifty thousand of whom were slain, drowned, or taken prisoners, and the rest dispersed. Having at last advanced too far into Russia, he lost in two hours, near Pultawa, the fruit of nine years' success (A. D. 1709). His half-famished and exhausted army being soon overpowered by numbers, experienced a most signal overthrow, and Charles himself, wounded and forced to leave the field, with difficulty escaped to Bender, a Turkish town in Bessarabia. There he spent a long time in endeavoring to engage the Ottoman Porte in a war with the Russians. Seeing the little success which attended his efforts, he resolved, after an absence of five years and many adventures worthy of a romantic hero, to return through Germany to Sweden, which he found in a miserable condition, without troops, without money, without resources, and attacked on all sides by her numerous enemies. Charles made desperate exertions to defend his kingdom and retrieve his losses, but he did not live to recover his former ascendency, being killed by a musket ball at the siege of Fredericshall, a town of Norway, in 1718. His death was the signal for a general cessation of hostilities; and Sweden hastened to conclude a peace, disadvantageous indeed, but required by the situation of her affairs.

These events allowed the Czar to carry his views of improvement fully into execution. In the course of a few years, Russia beheld with admiration the establishment in her cities, of schools, academies, manufactures, arsenals, and the rapid rise of St. Petersburg, her present capital. A powerful navy was created; harbors were opened on the Black and Baltic seas, to shelter numerous ships of the line, as well as frigates and merchant vessels; the standing army was trained in all the exercises of military discipline; laws were enacted and measures adopted to amend the defects and polish the manners of the people. A prudent management of the public revenue enabled Peter to accomplish his grand and extensive designs without oppressing his subjects. By these noble efforts, occasionally disgraced however by acts of cruelty, this prince not only laid the foundation, but also raised the superstructure of Russian greatness, and secured to himself the surname of *Great*. He died in 1725.

WESTERN EUROPE FROM THE DEATH OF LOUIS XIV IN 1715 TO THE TREATY OF VIENNA IN 1735.

The other leading sovereigns in Europe at this time were: Charles VI in Germany, Philip V in Spain, Louis XV in France under the regency of the duke of Orleans, and in England George I, a prince of the house of Brunswick, who, upon the death of Queen Anne, had been called to the throne in preference to the surviving members of the house of Stuart. Peace continued among these different courts for the space of twenty-five years (1715—1740), except during two very short wars, one in 1718, the other in 1733.

Spain under Philip V was governed in the beginning by Cardinal Julius Alberoni, whose bold and vast genius, not satisfied with regulating the internal concerns of that kingdom, undertook also to change the whole political system of Europe. His general view was to raise Spain again to the pinnacle of active influence and power; in particular he intended 1°. to engage the Russians in a war against Austria, and through this powerful help wrest from the emperor's hands that part of Italy which the treaty of Utrecht had allotted to him out of the Spanish possessions. 2°. his object was to dethrone the British king George I, in favor of the son of James II, called *the pretender;* and 3°. to transfer the regency of France, during the minority of Louis XV, from the duke of Orleans to the Spanish monarch. Had these projects proved successful, Alberoni would have gained a reputation, if not superior, at least equal to that of Ximenes and Richelieu; but all his brilliant schemes were baffled by the vigilance and activity of the interested parties. The quadruple alliance formed by Germany, England, France and Holland against Spain, compelled Philip V to adopt views very different from those of his minister; the Spanish troops, who had already entered Sicily and Sardinia, were obliged to evacuate those islands, and Alberoni fell into disgrace (A. D. 1720).

Next came the war for the succession of Poland, in 1733. After the death of Augustus II, Stanislaus Leckzinski, who had already, though for a short time, occupied the Polish throne under the protection of Charles XII, was a second time chosen king. But the emperor Charles VI having with the help of the Russians obliged the Poles to set about a new election, the elector of Saxony, his kinsman, was raised to that high dignity under the name of Augustus III, and Stanislaus, as formerly, was forced to abandon his crown.

Louis XV thought himself injured in the person of that prince, who had become his father-in-law, and determined to be revenged on the emperor. The more surely to effect his purpose, he entered into an alliance, not only with the court of Spain, now almost constantly hostile to the house of Austria, but also with the king of Sardinia, formerly duke of Savoy, and war was begun at the same time on the German frontier near the Rhine, and in different parts of Italy. Philipsburg was invested by a gallant army under Marshal Berwick, and although this experienced commander was killed by a cannon ball whilst visiting the trenches, the place was taken, notwithstanding the presence of Prince Eugene, who being destitute of the energy of youth, did not dare hazard a battle, to prevent its surrender. The French were not less successful in Italy, where Marshal Villars closed his military career by the capture of Milan, and Marshal Coigny, his successor, gained the bloody victories of Parma and Guastalla. In the south, still more rapid was the progress of the Spaniards under the duke of Montemar and Don Carlos, son of Philip V; they defeated the imperialists in the decisive battle of Bitonto, and, in two campaigns, rendered themselves masters of the kingdom of Naples and of the island of Sicily.

Thus vanquished at every point, the emperor intimated a desire of peace, the principal terms of which were arranged at Vienna in 1735. By this treaty it was stipulated that Stanislaus, instead of the crown of Poland, should enjoy the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, under the title of king, and that after his death these duchies should be for ever annexed to France; that the duke of Lorraine, the emperor's ally, should have Tuscany in exchange for his hereditary dominions; in fine, that whilst the king of Sardinia would gain some districts in the north of Italy, the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily should be left to the house of Bourbon, in the person of Don Carlos. In consideration of these cessions, Louis XV agreed to restore to the empire his late conquests near the Rhine.

EASTERN EUROPE.—THAMAS KOULI KAN, OR NADIR SCHAH, THE PERSIAN CONQUEROR, ETC.

A. D. 1736—1755.

Scarcely was this peace negotiated, when a fresh war broke out between the Russians and the Turks, in which Charles VI, owing to his intimate alliance with Russia, found himself involved. He resolved to attack the Ottomans in the direction of Hungary, while his allies pressed them on the borders of the Black Sea; but the imperial commanders were repeatedly defeated, several important places were lost, and, as little hope remained to retrieve these disasters, the emperor had recourse to the mediation of France for the conclusion of a new treaty. Anne also, the Russian empress, though recently victorious at Choczim, consented, for fear of being deserted by her ally, to a negotiation. The Turks, under circumstances so favorable to them, obtained an advantageous peace; the emperor ceded to them Belgrade with two provinces, and the Czarina agreed to withdraw her troops from the city and territory of Azof, so as to reestablish the limits between the Turkish and Russian empires as they were before the commencement of hostilities (A. D. 1739).

That treaty, how glorious soever to the Ottomans, did not long retard their decline; the Russians soon reassumed the ascendency, and even about this time the Turks were rather unsuccessful in a war which they had against Persia. Having subdued, between the years 1723 and 1733, rich and extensive provinces, their career of success was at length stopped by the famous Nadir Schah, or Thamas Kouli Kan, who, after fighting the battles of his sovereign Schah Thamas against powerful rebels, usurped the Persian throne. He renewed the foreign war which had ceased for a while, and, though defeated three times in succession by Topal Osman, a brave and skilful general, victory declared in his favor on every other occasion, and the Turks were compelled to give up what they had lately conquered.

After this, Nadir Schah, who seemed to have inherited the enterprising spirit of Genghis Kan and Tamerlane, turned his arms against the rich empire of Hindoostan. With only sixty thousand warriors, he destroyed or dispersed an army of twelve hundred thousand Hindoos and Moguls, took Delhi, their capital city, and returned with so prodigious a quantity of pearls, gold and silver, that the amount is commonly estimated to have been upwards of a *billion* of dollars. He did not long enjoy these fruits of his insatiable avidity: not less dreaded by his subjects for his cruelty than by his enemies for his valor, he fell a victim to a conspiracy, and was assassinated in his tent

(A. D. 1747). His death was followed by a series of revolutions so bloody and destructive, that the populous city of Ispahan saw, within a few years, the number of its inhabitants reduced from a million to a few thousand persons, and a long time elapsed before Persia could even begin to recover from her astounding calamities.

WAR FOR THE SUCCESSION OF AUSTRIA.—THE PRETENDER IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.—A. D. 1740—1748.

THE death of the emperor Charles VI without male issue, in 1740, threw all Europe again into war. In virtue of a previous agreement called the *Pragmatic sanction*, and also by the emperor's last will, his hereditary dominions of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, belonged to his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, who had lately married Francis, duke of Lorraine. Her claims were supported chiefly by England and Holland, but opposed by Spain, Prussia and Saxony, whose sovereigns brought forward different claims to a share in that immense inheritance, and especially by the elector of Bavaria, who caused himself to be proclaimed emperor at Frankfort, under the protection of the French armies, and with the name of Charles VII.

Every thing at first prospered according to his wishes, and the wishes of his allies; Austria, Bohemia and Silesia were invaded by their troops, so as to oblige Maria Theresa to take refuge in Hungary. She appeared amidst the Hungarian nobles in the city of Presburg, holding her young son, afterwards Joseph II, in her arms, and earnestly recommending him to their fidelity. This affecting scene moved the assembly to tears; all swore to die, if necessary, for their sovereign, Maria Theresa,* and she was instantly supplied with a fresh army zealously devoted to her interests. By a sudden change of fortune, her competitor Charles VII was not only driven from his conquests, but even stripped for a time of his own hereditary dominions; he died shortly after at Munich, more of grief than of disease.

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* *Moriamur pro rege nostro Mariă Theresiâ;* such was their sudden and unanimous exclamation.

It might have been expected that his death, and the general acknowledgment, on the part of the German princes, of Francis of Lorraine as emperor, would put an end to these bloody quarrels; and in fact, some of the belligerent powers hastened to conclude separate treaties of alliance; but the obstinacy of some others protracted the war for three or four years longer. It was prosecuted with vigor particularly by the English and the French, who thus, from mere auxiliaries, became chief actors.

Even before the death of Charles VII, the king of England, George II, had taken the command of the British and allied forces in Germany. He was marching forward to join an additional body of auxiliary troops, when, near the village of Dattingen, he saw himself almost surrounded by the enemy, and reduced to a very critical situation. In effect, by the masterly manœuvres of the French general, Marshal de Noailles, all supplies were cut off; the neighboring hills were covered with a formidable artillery; and, had not the duke of Grammont's rash descent from the defiles into the plain with a portion of the army given the allies an opportunity of fighting on equal terms, a surrender, or total destruction would, in all probability, have been the consequence. The French charged, as usual, with impetuosity; but the English, animated by the presence of their king and of his son, the duke of Cumberland, received the shock with undaunted valor. After three hours fighting, the assailants were repulsed, having lost five thousand men, killed, wounded and prisoners (A. D. 1743).

Two years after, Louis XV and his son, the dauphin, in their turn defeated the army of the allies. The French king, having a large number of excellent troops commanded, under him, by Marshal Saxe, invested Tournay, one of the strongest towns in the Austrian Netherlands, and perhaps the most important place on that frontier. The combined forces of the British, Dutch and Hanoverians, amounting to about fifty thousand men under the command of the duke of Cumberland, advanced to its relief, and attacked the French, who had posted themselves on a rising ground in front of the village of Fontenoy. The battle began at nine in the morning, and lasted till three in the afternoon, being maintained all that time with equal courage by the two parties. Although the fire from the French batteries was so heavy that it swept off whole ranks at a single discharge, the British infantry, in the form of a close column, continued to advance as if they had been invulnerable, and the French began to give way. Marshal Saxe, fearing a total overthrow, sent advice to the king to provide for his safety by a timely retreat; but Louis refused to quit his post, and his firmness contributed to gain the honor of the day. At the suggestion of Marshal Richelieu, a fresh battery was erected just opposite to the front of the English column, at the distance of a few paces only; whilst it played upon them with dreadful execution, the French returned to the charge, and, after seven or eight minutes of heroic efforts on both sides, finally compelled the enemy to retreat, with the loss of twelve or fifteen thousand men. The surrender of Tournay, and of many other fortified towns in the Austrian Flanders, was the fruit of this great victory.

The following years equally exhibited a vicissitude of good and ill success. The French armies experienced signal defeats at Plaisance and Exilles in Italy, but were victorious in the great battles of Raucoux and Laufeld, which rendered them absolute masters of the Netherlands. At last, by the skilful movements of Marshal Saxe and Count Lowendhal, they began to penetrate into Holland, carried by storm cities and fortresses which were deemed impregnable, and by this rapidity of conquest obliged the allied powers to receive the favorable conditions of peace which Louis XV had been offering to them since the year 1744. He made no difficulty to acknowledge Maria Theresa for the lawful heiress of Charles VI, willingly restored his conquests, and contented himself with securing reasonable advantages for his own allies, saying that he wished to treat of peace, not as a merchant, but as a king. This treaty was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October 1748.

Some time before its conclusion, and while the British forces were yet employed on the continent, Charles Edward, the grand-son of the dethroned king of England, James II, undertook to revive the claims of his family by an invasion of that country. He first landed on the shores of Scotland with one single frigate, some ammunition and a few officers. The public assertion of his rights, his promise of a just government, and the brilliant qualities of his person soon gathered around him a little army, with which he immediately took the field. His first exploits were the capture of Edinburgh and the total overthrow of four thousand Englishmen at Prestonpans; he then proceeded into England, took the city of Carlisle, and advanced as far as Derby, within eighty or ninety miles of London, when the approach of the duke of Cumberland at the head of superior forces obliged him to retreat with some disadvantage, though in good order. The victory of Falkirk, which he gained in January 1746, revived his hopes; but his subsequent defeat at Culloden blasted them for ever. Being now destitute of money and troops, without any sure asylum, constantly pursued by his enemies, always in danger of falling into their hands, and of ending his career upon a scaffold, wanting food and garments, wandering from place to place and from cavern to cavern, he exhausted, as it were, all the rigors of misfortune, and endured them with such fortitude, as to gain the admiration of the world.

In the midst of his calamities, and although the sum of thirty thousand pounds was offered as the reward of his capture, he had the happiness never to be betrayed by any one, not even by the poor who happened to recognize him under his various disguises. As he was once quite exhausted, and almost dying of starvation, he determined to ask some assistance of one of his enemies whose house he perceived at a distance, whilst wandering through the country. He went, knocked at the door, and, as soon as the owner appeared, "Behold," said the young prince, "the son of your lawful sovereign, who craves a little bread and some garments. I know you are my enemy; but on your probity I rely enough to believe that you will not betray my confidence in you, nor take advantage of my extreme distress." The gentleman, deeply moved at the sight of such misfortune united with such magnanimity, bestowed on his guest all the assistance which he needed, and observed an inviolable secrecy.

In fine, after five months of incredible sufferings, Edward embarked on board a French frigate, and, escaping the sight of the British vessels which were cruising along the coast, safely reached the shores of France whence he had sailed on his adventurous expedition. He afterwards repaired to Rome, where he died at the age of sixty-eight years (A. D. 1788).

OLD FRENCH WAR, OTHERWISE CALLED WAR OF HANOVER, OR SEVEN YEARS WAR.—A. D. 1756—1763.

The boundaries of the French and British possessions in North America not having been sufficiently settled by the treaties of Utrecht and Aix-la-Chapelle, there soon arose complaints of mutual encroachments. A fresh negotiation was indeed opened between the courts of London and Versailles, but to no effect; hostilities followed, and after being carried on for a time without any previous declaration of war, at last came to an open rupture in 1756.

This new warfare, which, in a short time extended to all parts of the world, entirely changed, from the beginning, the political aspect of Europe. France and Austria, so long opposed to each other, now united their interests, and were joined by Russia, Sweden and Saxony. Holland and Spain kept at first a sort of neutrality; but the English, besides the superiority of their naval forces, succeeded in securing to themselves a powerful ally on the continent, Frederic II, king of Prussia, who had already acquired great renown for his ability and gained many laurels in the preceding conflict of the Austrian succession.

The first chances of war were favorable to France in almost every place. The English and their allies were defeated in North America, on the Mediterranean Sea, in the island of Minorca, where the supposed impregnable fortress of St. Philip, or Fort Mahon, was taken almost at the first onset; and particularly in the north of Germany, where forty thousand men commanded by the duke of Cumberland, experienced such reverses as to be obliged at last to capitulate. Nor was Frederic II in a better condition. After a transitory success, he had been routed by the Austrians; his kingdom was ravaged by the Russians and the Swedes, and a French army was marching from another quarter to complete his ruin. In this extremity, his courage and presence of mind did not fail him: he retreated before the French, as if frightened at their approach, and took at Rosbach a formidable position. Here, whilst the enemy advanced against him in the hope of a sure and easy triumph, the tents which concealed his army suddenly disappeared, and the Prussians were seen in battle array, between two hills covered with artillery. At this unexpected sight, a panic seized the assailants, and they had scarcely fought a quarter of an hour, when they fled in every direction. This brilliant exploit, which was entirely owing to the genius of Frederic, restored his decaying affairs; it enabled him to repel the imperialists from Silesia; and the French also had to give up their last conquests.

The three following campaigns offered a series of battles and a variety of events, which it would be equally tedious and useless to enumerate. The French now maintained their ground well enough in Germany; but on every part of the ocean, as well as in the East and West Indies, they suffered incredible and irreparable losses. Hitherto, the Marquis of Montcalm had ably and successfully defended their Canadian possessions; but, as no fresh supplies could be forwarded to him across the Atlantic, where the English every where prevailed, the number of his troops daily diminished, and it was not in his power to hinder a superior force under general Wolfe from reaching the vicinity of Quebec. In order, if possible, to save that capital, he ventured to give them battle. The disposition of the two armies was masterly, and the action commenced with great resolution on both sides. During the conflict, Wolfe and Montcalm, who had given equal proofs of personal courage, were both mortally wounded; the former died in the enthusiasm of victory, which he saw favoring the English, and the latter with the sad consolation of not having to witness the approaching surrender of Quebec. It took place six days later, and was followed in one year by the reduction of all Canada (A. D. 1759–1760).

The same happened to the French settlements in the East Indies; sooner or later, all fell into the hands of the English. Nor could France put a stop to that astonishing series of disasters; her navy, which had severly suffered during the preceding war, was now in a wretched condition, and though privateers greatly annoyed the British commerce, her weak squadrons were totally inadequate to cope with the imposing forces of England. The only subject of hope that remained was the assistance, if it could be obtained, of the other branches of the Bourbon family, actually reigning in Spain, Naples and Sicily. Louis requested it through his ministers, and the Spanish king, Charles III, generously consented to help him with vessels and troops. A treaty to this effect was framed under the name of *family compact;* but it was of no advantage to Louis XV, and proved most prejudicial to his ally. No sooner were the English apprized of the transaction, than they directed their efforts against the Spanish settlements in Asia and America, destroyed their commerce, and made immense captures.

All the resources of France were now exhausted; one year had been sufficient to baffle the auxiliary measures of Spain, and England herself was much depressed by the amazing efforts which she made to obtain such superiority over all her enemies. This weariness of the chief belligerent powers made all parties desirous of peace (A. D. 1763). Whilst it was concluded at Hubersburg between the Prussian monarch and his numerous adversaries; the British, French and Spanish courts signed the treaty of Paris, by which it was agreed that England, upon restoring a few of her conquests, should retain the whole of Canada and many other valuable possessions. Thus did that mighty nation secure her maritime and commercial preponderance, though the time was not far distant, when she was to be deprived, by an unexpected revolution, of her own colonies in North America.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.—A. D. 1764—1776.

THE great accession of power and territory just acquired by Great Britian, had not been gained without enormous expenses, increased taxation, and a rapidily accumulating debt. No sooner were hostilities at an end, than the English ministry made it their chief object to find out new sources of revenue, and devise means for replenishing the treasury. North America opened to their view, so they at least flattered themselves, a new and abundant field for levying taxes; and, on motion of Lord Grenville, first commissioner of the exchequer, the famous act for imposing stamp duties on the colonies was passed, in 1765, by both houses of the British parliament.

This act excited serious alarm among the Americans. Without altogether contesting the power vested in parliament, to make regulations for trade, they sternly denied its right to impose direct revenue taxes on them without their own consent. Petitions and remonstrances drawn up in energetic language, were instantly despatched to the government; nor were there wanting in England itself men of remarkable talent and eloquence, as the celebrated William Pitt, earl of Chatham, who strenuously maintained the privileges of the Colonies. All these protests, supported by the measures which the Americans took to prevent the exaction of the stamp duties, succeeded, on the accession of a new British ministry, in procuring the revocation of the obnoxious act (1766).

The rejoicings which that repeal produced in America, were great and sincere, but still much diminished by a certain act which parliament issued at the same time, asserting its power to bind the Colonies in all cases whatsoever. A variety of particular restrictions fostered the spirit of dread and mistrust in American hearts, and subsequent events revived all former irritation. The scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies was again practically adopted, by imposing duties on tea, glass, paper and painters' colors imported from Great Britain. The colonists opposed these new attempts on their liberties, by a fresh series of petitions, remonstrances and protests, and chiefly by non-importation agreements; nor did their resentment stop there: an immense quantity of tea, which had been shipped for Massachusetts, not only was not suffered to land, but was even thrown into the bay by the Bostonians.

This bold measure formed a new and momentous crisis in the relations between America and Great Britain. While in England bills were passed, coercive expedients adopted, and powerful reinforcements of vessels and troops despatched against the city of Boston, the American states were not slow in espousing the cause of their sister Colony, in organizing a militia, and procuring, by every means in their power, arms, ammunition and all necessary supplies for the defence of privileges dearer to them than life. Still, it was again the lot of the New Englanders to begin the conflict. A party of men having been sent by General Gage, from Boston, to destroy some military stores collected at Concord by the provincials, were, on their way back, attacked near Lexington, and lost two hundred and seventy-three of their number, whereas the loss of their opponents was only ninety-three. This was the first blood spilled in battle during the American revolution.

Two months later (June 1775), a still more memorable action took place at Bunker Hill, or rather Breed's Hill, near Boston, between fifteen hundred New Englanders, and three thousand British regulars. The coolness of the provincials at the approach of a veteran force double their number, was astonishing, and the order of General Putnam not to fire till they could distinguish the whites of the enemy's eyes, was scrupulously obeyed. The regulars were permitted to advance to within about sixty yards, when a deadly fire of small arms was opened upon them with such effect, that whole ranks were mowed down, and the line, wavering for a moment, at last broke, and gave way. They rallied, advanced again, and were again repulsed by the same destructive and incessant fire. A third charge, led on by General Clinton, proved more successful, and the provincials, who had nearly exhausted their ammunition, were obliged to retire; but, although they left the field of battle, they could justly claim the advantage of victory, their loss being only four hundred and fifty-three, that of the British, one thousand and fifty-four.

The spirit displayed by the Americans in these engagements greatly increased their confidence, and urged them to new exertions. In the mean time, a general Congress of the colonies, represented by their deputies, had met in Philadelphia for the purpose of adopting measures adequate to the important crisis. They voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men, appointed the general officers, and, on motion of Mr. Johnson of Maryland, unanimously chose GEORGE WASHINGTON commander-in-chief of the American forces. The great man who thus already possessed the universal confidence and esteem of his countrymen, accepted the appointment with unfeigned modesty, and immediately took command of the army in the vicinity of Boston. Before his arrival, the scheme of surrounding the royal forces in that city had already been contrived, and was about to be put in execution; Washington pursued it with such ardor and success, as to leave them no resource but immediate departure on board their vessels hitherto anchored in the harbor. Accordingly, on the seventeenth of March 1776, the British troops, amounting to more than seven thousand men, evacuated the town, which was immediately occupied by the triumphant provincials.

Shortly after this, the English, having endeavored first to surprise New York, and then to reduce Charleston by a vigorous attack, were foiled in both attempts. The Americans, it is true, were not equally fortunate in their own attempt upon Canada, and rather suffered a considerable loss, in the siege of Quebec, which cost the life of General Montgomery, and reduced Colonel Arnold to the necessity of retreating; but this unhappy expedition served at least to show the ardor of the colonists even for offensive warfare, whilst all their energies were required to defend themselves against a powerful enemy.

All these actions however they had performed without renouncing their allegiance to the British crown. There was indeed in the Colonies a spirit of open and unflinching resistance to the invasion of their privileges; but the people and their representatives had, until the close of the year 1775, entertained the hope and expressed the desire of bringing their controversy with Great Britain to a speedy and amicable conclusion. Unfortunately for England, her existing ministry had determined to maintain by force the right of taxation and the legislative supremacy of Parliament over the Colonies; and the Colonies were equally determined to repel the claim by force.

The exasperation of the people in America rose to the highest pitch, when they were informed that measures for fresh hostilities had been taken by Great Britain against them, so far as to hire multitudes of foreign troops for a more vigorous prosecution of the war. The public mind, under the constant excitement of sufferings or fears, began to think of adopting a course different from that hitherto pursued. The winter and spring of 1776 were spent in discussions, appeals and publications of every sort, urging the necessity and advantage of a total separation from the mother country. The momentous step was taken into serious consideration by Congress, then assembled at Philadelphia and consisting of the representatives of thirteen colonies, viz. Massachusetts including Maine, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. After long and animated debates, a DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, drawn up by Thomas Jefferson, was unanimously approved on the FOURTH OF JULY, a day for ever memorable in the annals of America, and then solemnly proclaimed to the people. In this important instrument, the members of Congress, in the name of their constituents, after enumerating their grievances and subjects of complaint against the British government, renounced all allegiance to it, dissolved all political connexion with England,

and declared the United Colonies to be free, independent and sovereign states; at the same time, mutually pledging to each other, for the support of this declaration, "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor."

WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.—A. D. 1776—1783.

The declaration of independence was certainly a point of very high importance for the people of the United Colonies, but to render it an efficient and irrevocable measure, it required all their energies in the open field; the more so, as the prospect of their affairs at that epoch was by no means encouraging. The British were ready to prosecute the war vigorously by land and sea. Their army consisted of twenty-four thousand of the best troops from Europe, to whom several regiments of Hessian infantry were expected soon to be added, carrying their number to the amount of thirty-five thousand men, under the command of very able generals and experienced officers, and well supplied with every thing necessary for an active and successful warfare.

To resist the attack, and check, if possible, the progress of these combined forces, the American general had under his command troops not only far inferior in numbers, but still more so in military discipline, and, owing chiefly to the pecuniary embarrassments of the country, ill-provided with food, clothing, arms and ammunition. It required his utmost sagacity and indefatigable efforts to train them to habits of necessary subordination and to a regular manner of fighting, and particularly to retain them in sufficient force under his banners, at a time when the ill-advised practice of short enlistments easily permitted them to withdraw from the service. Yet, under these trying circumstances, never did the great mind of Washington, even after many a defeat which neither his courage nor skill could prevent, abandon the hope of ultimate success. Never did Congress, even when surrounded by obstacles, and seeing the cause of independence on the brink of ruin, listen to any proposals of peace, except on the condition of an acknowledgment from England of the freedom and sovereignty of the Colonies. Like the Romans of old, who showed their contempt of the victorious host of Annibal, by selling at a high price the field on which it was encamped near their city, so the leading American patriots, far from suffering themselves to be dejected by the gloomy state of their affairs, constantly expressed their determination to carry on the struggle at all hazards, rather than ever return under British subjection.

These lofty hopes and resolutions of Congress, in which a large majority of the people always concurred, were sustained not only by the consciousness of their own energy, but also by a well founded expectation of foreign alliance and succors. In fact, almost from the beginning of the war, the Colonies successfully applied to various places abroad to secure supplies of arms and ammunition, and, though no foreign state had yet acknowledged their independence, such a number of able officers came over to them from Poland and France, as greatly added to the skill and strength of their armies. In 1778, the successful exertions of the commissioners of Congress, and particularly of the celebrated doctor Franklin, induced the French government openly to declare in favor of the Americans. Public hostilities commenced from that moment between France and Great Britain, and the contest became still more animated, when Spain in 1779, and Holland in 1780, joined in the war against England; whilst the league, called *the armed neutrality*, was also formed against her interests, by the northern powers of Russia, Sweden and Denmark.

To oppose such an array of enemies, the English nation, roused by danger to exertions worthy of her opulence and greatness, displayed a spirit truly magnanimous, and astonishing resources. Her fleets covered both hemispheres, and her armies every where fought with a valor which challenges unqualified admiration. Still, it was easy to foresee, that, since the English were obliged to divide their forces, however successful they might be in various particular engagements, they would in the end lose the main point at issue, the recovery of their Colonies. It is true, the allied European powers did not, at least in the beginning, lend to the Colonies so direct and efficient a cooperation as might have been anticipated; yet, it is self-evident that, occupying the immense navies of Great Britain, as well in the East and West Indies, as along the shores of Europe and Africa, they afforded, by thus preventing her from concentrating her energies, an immense advantage to the American cause. The successful result of the war of independence was, therefore, to be produced, and in fact was achieved in America itself, through a long series of hardships and battles, of disasters and victories. This naturally leads us to resume the course of military events, and relate in the order of time, those which immediately followed the declaration of independence.

Two months had not elapsed since that remarkable event, when the Colonies saw with dismay their troops signally defeated in the disastrous battle of Long Island. Washington, unable to cope with the superior forces of the English and Hessians, was obliged to evacuate not only this island, but even, a few days after, the city of New York; nor was this the end of the misfortune. At the approach of a victorious enemy, it became necessary and urgent to abandon the province of New Jersey, and cross with all speed the river Delaware. It was truly a dispiriting scene to behold that scanty, destitute and diminishing band, scarcely amounting to three thousand, pursued by a triumphant, well disciplined and abundantly supplied army of thirty thousand men. About the same time an American flotilla on Lake Champlain was almost entirely destroyed, and the State of Rhode Island conquered by the British.

Of all the periods of the revolution, this was the most gloomy and disheartening. Fortunately, so hopeless a state of things did not last long, and Washington having received reinforcements which made his army amount to about seven thousand, was enabled to raise the drooping spirits of his countrymen by a bold and successful attempt. Observing the scattered and loosely guarded positions of the enemy along the left bank of the Delaware, he recrossed that river on Christmas-day, suddenly attacked the Hessian troops at Trenton, and captured about nine hundred men and officers, with the whole artillery and ammunition. Ten days later, he again defeated three regiments at Princeton, and pursuing his advantage, made such skilful manœuvres as to wrest from the enemy almost all their conquests in the Jerseys, and gained for himself among tacticians in Europe the surname of the *American Fabius*. At the reopening of the campaign in 1777, he was again obliged to retreat before the overwhelming force of the British, and even, in consequence of the unfavorable actions of Brandywine and Germantown, to leave Philadelphia for a time in the power of the enemy; yet, he so well conducted his army, so judiciously chose the positions for his encampments, that the conquerors were unable to derive any material advantage from their progress and victories.

Towards the close of the same year 1777, the previous losses of the Americans in the north were most advantageously repaired. General Burgoyne had undertaken to effect a junction of the British troops from Canada with those stationed at New York, for the purpose of cutting off all communication between the northern and southern States. His march from Quebec and upon the American territory was at first successful and rapid, though it cost him much labor to make the roads passable. The fierce battles of Bennington and Stillwater checked this triumphant course; and he was still far from having accomplished his project, when desertions and scarcity of provisions increased his embarrassment. A speedy retreat towards the north might perhaps have delivered him from his perilous position; but this last resource was also rendered impossible by the skilful efforts of General Gates to surround him. Burgoyne, thus deprived of all means of escape, opened at Saratoga a negotiation with the American general, and on the seventeenth of October surrendered the remnant of his troops, now reduced from twelve to six thousand, with the whole train of artillery and an immense quantity of warlike stores.

The capture of Burgoyne's army was, especially in a moral point of view and as an encouragement, of vital importance to the Americans. Still, much remained to be done and suffered, before the war could be brought to a close. The chief theatre of hostilities was now transferred, as it were by common consent of the hostile parties, from the northern to the southern States. Here the cause of liberty seemed totally lost for a long time. The capture of Savannah, and the subsequent conquest of all Georgia by the British in 1779; afterwards, their success in subduing Charleston and South Carolina, with a considerable loss of men and artillery on the part of the Americans, in 1780; finally, the signal defeat of General Gates by Lord Cornwallis at Camden, opening a free road to the invasion of North Carolina and Virginia: such was, in the beginning of 1781, the discouraging and almost desperate situation of affairs throughout that extensive part of the American territory. In this extremity, the command of the republican forces there happily devolved on two men endowed with that courage, activity and perseverance which the emergency required; men of peculiar and fertile genius, who stimulated the spirits of the patriots, roused them to fresh exertions, and, by a series of gallant actions, not only checked the victorious career of the enemy, but even prepared the way for the final triumph of American Independence.

The first of these prominent personages was General Greene, justly surnamed, for his brilliant achievements, the liberator of the South. Being appointed to succeed Gates after the defeat of Camden, he entered the state of South Carolina with a dispirited and almost destitute army, and found the country in the possession of a mighty foe, intrenched in a long chain of well garrisoned and fortified posts. He successively broke through and captured them, and although several times defeated in the open field, found such resources in the energy of his character and the fertility of his genius, that he was always formidable, and did not cease to harass his opponents, until he had driven them from their different posts throughout the State into the fortifications of the capital. The victory of General Morgan at Cowpens opened, and the battle of Eutaw Springs won by Greene in person, closed this decisive campaign.*

Nearly the same success was obtained in Virginia by Lafayette, who, with only three thousand men, mostly undisciplined militia, had to defend the country against the superior numbers and the victorious veterans of Lord Cornwallis now advancing, with full confidence, to the conquest of this important State. The French general, well taught in the school of Washington, so tempered his characteristic ardor with reflection and wariness, manœuvred with so much prudence and skill, as to baffle the efforts and frustrate all the lofty designs of his opponent. Cornwallis, thus constantly disappointed, retired towards the coast with all his troops, and at length took a strong position at Yorktown and Gloucester Point, near the mouth of York river. Here the protracted struggle was to be finally decided.

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* As well in this as in other periods and theatres of the war, the officers and soldiers of the Maryland regiment highly distinguished themselves by their intrepid and gallant behavior. None fought more resolutely in the disastrous battles of Long Island and Camden; and, could victory have been won, their courage would have achieved it on both occasions. See Marshall, *Life of Washington, vol.* I, *p.* 346–347;—Wilson, *History of the American Revolution*, *p.* 160 and 300;—Frost, *History of the United States*, *p.* 200 and 271.

No sooner did Washington, who was now actively occupied in the vicinity of New York, receive an exact account of the state of things in Virginia, and of the destination of a powerful French armament for the Chesapeake, than he resolved to turn these advantages to the best account, by capturing the whole army of Cornwallis. This required profound secrecy, a skilful combination of means and a mighty concentration of forces near Yorktown; but the mind of the commander-in-chief was not unequal either to the planning of all the parts of that complicated scheme, or to its successful execution. His first care was to conceal his real object from Sir Henry Clinton, who commanded the British army in New York; and this was easily done by threatening a serious attack on that city. He then, with the French general Rochambeau and their joint forces, marched rapidly through New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and crossing the Chesapeake on board of vessels kept ready for the occasion, effected the reunion of his army with that commanded by Lafayette on the Virginia side. The combined host amounted to nearly seventeen thousand men, twelve or thirteen thousand of whom were regulars, filled with confidence, ardor, enthusiasm, and well provided with all the materials necessary for a siege. Moreover, the French fleet, composed of about thirty ships of the line under the command of Count De Grasse, lay anchored at the mouth of York river and the entrance of the Chesapeake, so as to render the escape of Cornwallis impossible by sea, as his retreat was impracticable by land, in presence of the superior force of the allies.

After a council of war held on board the ship *La Ville de Paris*, the attack on the British was commenced from the land side, in the beginning of October, 1781. On the tenth of the same month, the besiegers opened their batteries with such effect, that the enemy's cannon was silenced for a time, and the shells and red-hot balls, flying over the town, even reached the ships in the harbor. It was in vain that Cornwallis endeavored to retard the progress of the assailants by a vigorous sally, and shortly after to effect his escape by Gloucester Point during the night; both attempts failed, and no resource was left but unconditional and immediate surrender, which was made on the nineteenth of October; the whole British army, amounting to seven thousand men, yielded themselves as prisoners of war, and delivered to the victorious allies their artillery, military chest, public stores, and their vessels in the harbor.

The victory of Yorktown which was soon followed by the recovery of Savannah and Charleston, may be justly considered as the virtual termination of the War of Independence. Hostilities, it is true, were still carried on between the European powers with fierce animosity and unabated vigor; but the signal defeat of the French by Admiral Rodney in the West Indies, and the total failure of the Spaniards at the siege of Gibraltar (A. D. 1782), counterbalancing the partial success previously obtained by the two nations, taught them to put an end to the contest. England too, notwithstanding her late triumphs, had no interest to continue it, since she had now lost all rational expectation of ever recovering her colonies. A negotiation was accordingly opened, and commissioners from the interested parties assembled at Paris, (or rather Versailles), to settle the terms of a general peace. After long and animated debates, the definitive treaty was finally signed in September, 1783, by which, besides various advantages of minor importance granted to France and Spain, the Independence of the United States was solemnly and universally acknowledged.

On the twenty-fifth of November following, the British army and fleet evacuated New York, their last remaining possession on the territory of the United States. General

Washington entered the city in triumph, and, after a short stay, took an affecting leave of his officers, and set out for the purpose of resigning his office of commander-in-chief into the hands of Congress, then in session at Annapolis in Maryland. Here, on the twenty-third of December, "In the presence of the representatives of the States, and a large concourse of civil and military officers, foreign agents, and citizens, he delivered his commission with a simple and moving address, in which, after congratulating the country on the successful termination of the war, and recommending the officers and the army to the justice of Congress, he concluded by bidding them an affectionate farewell. The highest testimony of popular love and admiration followed him into his retirement; and his return to the domestic shades of Mount Vernon, accompanied by the blessings and plaudits of millions whom he had guided to liberty and safety, was the closing scene of the war of the American Revolution" (Wilson, p. 372).

With this interesting event we shall also close the seventh part of Modern History. As there is no peculiar remark to be made on the discoveries of this period, their bare enumeration will find a more proper place in the chronological table at the end of the volume.

PART VIII.

FROM THE TREATY OF PARIS, OR VERSAILLES, IN WHICH THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES WAS SOLEMNLY ACKNOWLEDGED (A. D. 1783), TO THE YEAR OF OUR LORD, 1842.

FORMATION OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.—A. D. 1783—1789.

WASHINGTON, FIRST PRESIDENT.

It was not enough for the happiness of the United Colonies to have become free, independent and sovereign States; a mode of general government was moreover to be established among them, calculated at once to maintain their union, provide for their defence and ensure their prosperity. Experience had already taught, and for some years more continued to teach, that the existing loose confederation which they had adopted during the war, could by no means effect these purposes. The great difficulties which occurred in disbanding the troops and satisfying their just demands, the want of pecuniary resources in Congress, the absence of a proper system and of uniform rules to carry on foreign commerce, and other similar circumstances, were serious evils, threatening still worse consequences for the future, unless checked by a speedy and powerful remedy.

Virginia and Maryland had the honor of taking the first efficient steps towards the desired and so much needed measure. Their endeavors, upheld by the cooperation of several other States, induced Congress to pass a resolution that a committee of delegates, invested with ample powers, should assemble for the purpose of framing a Constitution adapted to the exigencies of the country. The proposed committee, composed of the ablest men in the union, met at Philadelphia, in 1787, under the presidency of General Washington; after four months of discussion and labor, the important work was completed, and transmitted by Congress to the several States for their consideration and acceptance.

By the Federal Constitution, the general government is made to consist of three distinct departments, the *legislative, executive* and *judicial.* The legislative department consists of a Senate and House of Representatives, collectively called the Congress. The executive is composed of a president, who, together with the vice-president, is chosen for four years by electors from all the States, and of several subordinate officers appointed by the president. In fine, the judicial power is vested in a supreme court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The attributions of each power are defined and regulated; the principal article is that which authorizes Congress to declare war, raise and support armies, provide and maintain a navy, coin money, lay taxes, regulate commerce, and provide in general for the government, welfare and security of the nation.

No sooner was the Constitution made known to the public, than it met with earnest opposition from those who thought that it vested too much power in the general government, to the detriment of the individual States. It was also very strongly supported by others; and hence arose the two opposite parties of the federalists and anti-federalists or democrats, which have divided the country ever since.

Notwithstanding this contrariety and clashing of views, the Federal Constitution was, after some amendments, sooner or later admitted by all the States. The time being near at hand, when the newly framed government was to be carried into operation, Washington was unanimously chosen president; he was inaugurated on the thirtieth of April, 1789, and, being reelected after the lapse of four years, continued in office until 1797. His public conduct, all that time, was marked by the same firmness and integrity which he had displayed at the head of armies. Although some of the measures which he pursued did not meet with universal approbation, he however never lost the esteem and affection of the great body of the people; the general advantages of his administration being too evident and the purity of his motives too well known, to permit any change of the public feeling in his regard. Scarcely had he retired from office to the employments of a private life, when the votes of the nation again appointed him commander-in-chief of a provisional army raised for the purpose of carrying on war against the leaders of the French revolutionary government. It fortunately happened that hostilities were confined to some private encounters at sea, as the disputes between the two powers were soon amicably adjusted; still, Washington did not see their termination, having died almost suddenly at Mount Vernon, on the fourteenth of December, 1799, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

There have been in the world, more powerful geniuses, mightier conquerors than Washington; yet, if every thing be well considered, if we call to mind the scantiness of his means together with his undaunted and successful perseverance, few will be found who merited from their contemporaries as high encomiums as the American general did; still fewer who evinced as much magnanimity in the most distressing cases; and none perhaps who, placed in the same or in the like situation, ever equalled him in integrity, disinterestedness and patriotism. In this point of view, Washington seems to stand alone; in this chiefly must he appear to every one an extraordinary man; a man truly deserving of being forever called the *Father of his country*, truly worthy of the eternal gratitude of Americans, whose independence he secured by his military achievements, whose national strength he increased by his political wisdom, and whose prosperity he so successfully promoted by his unabated zeal, and the vast influence of his moral character.

FRENCH REVOLUTION.—A. D. 1789—1795.

While the newly founded republic of the United States was rapidly rising from embarrassment to wealth and greatness, one of the most ancient and powerful monarchies in Europe crumbled, as it were, in pieces, and disappeared for a time from the rank of civilized nations. France, who had been so instrumental in assisting the Americans throughout their hardships and difficulties, was now plunged in an abyss of confusion and anarchy unprecedented in the annals of the world. The proximate cause of this frightful revolution is generally supposed to have been the deranged state of the finances, which could be remedied neither by the measures of a vacillating ministry, nor by the personal sacrifices of the virtuous King Louis XVI. To this may be added the desire of imitating the example of the United Colonies in their struggle for independence; a desire conceived and cherished by those who, expecting to derive profit from a change of government, little considered that the case of America was widely different from that of France, and that, moreover, the same course which had, from a variety of circumstances, benefited one of these countries, might, on the contrary, produce the most pernicious effect on the other.

But the chief, though remote cause of the French revolution, was that spirit of irreligion and infidelity which, from the regency of the duke of Orleans in 1715—1723, had made such a deplorable progress in France. This fatal seed, transplanted from England and Holland to the soil of their neighbors, received there its full growth by the diabolical exertions of such men as Voltaire, Diderot and others of the same stamp. During a weak administration, under several faithless ministers, the most violent attacks were directed with impunity against religion and all lawful authority, against the altar and the throne. The contagion rapidly spread from the capital to the provinces; and, although a multitude of excellent writers victoriously refuted the sophisms of incredulity concealed under an elegant style and the assumed name of philosophy, impious and infamous productions of every description continued to go forth and destroy, in the minds of their incautious readers, the germ of piety, of respect for the law, and of every virtue.

This anti-Christian conspiracy was carried on chiefly during the latter part of the eighteenth century. Upheld by human pride and passions, it received additional strength from its union with the Jansenists, a body of sectarians equally hostile to church and state, who had now existed in France for upwards of a hundred years. Lastly, the evil was rendered in some measure desperate by the expulsion of the Jesuits, that society of men so learned, so zealous, so eminently useful in defending religion, promoting piety, and training up youth in all good, moral and social principles.

Thus, throughout a nation hitherto so universally attached to her faith as well as to her sovereigns, numbers of persons permitted themselves to be seduced into a variety of impious systems, and an unbounded desire of pernicious innovations. This was unfortunately the spirit which animated most of those who composed, in 1789, the famous assembly of the States-general, convened at Versailles for the purpose of finding out means, and adopting measures conducive to the improvement of the finances. Their first step, at the opening of the session, was to oppose the excellent views of King Louis XVI; and this was soon followed by the still bolder attempt of framing a new constitution for France.

The immediate effects of this illegal enactment were, the equally illegal seizure of ecclesiastical property, the tender to the clergy of an oath wholly incompatible with the principles of jurisdiction established by Christ in his church, and edicts of persecution against those who should refuse to sacrifice their conscience for temporal considerations. Of one hundred and thirty-five bishops, only four took the unlawful oath; and but a comparatively small number of the inferior clergy imitated their example, myriads of others preferring to lose every thing upon earth rather than betray their duty. Most of those who remained thus faithful, were forced to quit the kingdom, and fly for refuge to Italy, Spain, Switzerland, Germany, or even to cross the seas, in order to reach the hospitable shores of England, Ireland or North America; while others, who stayed in France, were daily exposed to imprisonment and death.

By the leaders of the revolution, the nobility were not better treated than the bishops and priests. One hundred and fifty thousand persons, chiefly from the distinguished classes of society, are said to have emigrated to a foreign land, for the double purpose of avoiding the evils which threatened them, and of returning with a regular force to chastise the oppressors of their unhappy country. But the storm had already burst with too much violence. After removing the supporters of the throne, whom they called the abettors of tyranny, the real tyrants of France, under the successive names of *national*, *constituent*, *legislative assembly*, and of *national convention*, exerted their utmost endeavors first in degrading, and afterwards in demolishing the throne itself. They skilfully took advantage of the excessive condescension of Louis, gradually to limit his privileges, and of his reluctance in shedding any blood in his defence, to oblige him, by the repeated and atrocious attacks of an infuriated populace, to surrender himself and his family into their hands.

This event sealed the fate of the unfortunate monarch. The tigers who thirsted for his blood, Marat, Danton, Robespierre, and others of their party, now the most powerful in the capital, lost no time in procuring his condemnation. It was in vain that Louis, brought before that iniquitous tribunal, easily refuted their absurd charges; in vain too, that eloquent advocates powerfully vindicated his innocence: the death of the virtuous king was desired; capital punishment was decreed; and he met his fate on the twenty-first of January, 1793, with the magnanimity of a christian prince and the piety of a martyr.* In the ensuing October, his royal consort, Marie Antoinette, and in May 1794, his angelic sister, Elizabeth, were also led to execution. One year later, the young dauphin, Louis XVII, died in prison of a disease contracted from close confinement, and from the barbarous treatment inflicted on him by the monsters who regarded neither rank nor virtue neither sex nor age. Of all the members of that unfortunate family whom the revolutionary storm had placed within their reach, the daughter of Louis XVI, afterwards Duchess d'Angouleme, was the only one that they did not think proper to sacrifice to their frantic fury.

Massacres of priests and other innocent persons had been already committed in various quarters of Paris, even before the king's execution; his death seemed to be a signal for fresh and more extensive slaughters. The levelling fury of Robespierre and his accomplices now rapidly reached from the capital to the boundaries of the kingdom. A dark veil of terror and death covered all France; scaffolds were erected in various provinces and in almost every populous city; new torments were invented against the defenders of religion and monarchy; and, from the year 1792 to 1794, blood continued to flow in every part of this unhappy country. Nor was this enough for the madness and impiety now in possession of the sovereign power in France;

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* Every one knows the perfect resignation of Louis XVI to his fate; the noble tranquillity of his soul, marked by that profound sleep from which his valet-de-chambre was obliged to wake him a few hours before the execution; the pure feelings of heavenly charity expressed in his last will; the glowing fervor with which he received the last succors of religion; and those sublime words which his confessor (Abbé Firmont Edgeworth) addressed to him at the foot of the scaffold: "Son of Saint Louis, ascend to heaven!"

whatever appertained to the divine worship, became the peculiar object of their hatred; sacred things and places were either desecrated or destroyed; Sundays and festivals abolished; every mark of Christianity was obliterated; and instead of the hallowed rites and ceremonies of the church was substituted the infamous worship of the goddess *Reason*.

Such a state of things could not fail to excite feelings of horror in the breasts of those who had not lost all sense of humanity and religion. Whilst a kind of stupor oppressed all ranks, whilst millions, either destitute of sufficient energy or deprived of adequate means of resistance, silently wept over the awful scenes of calamity and bloodshed by which they were surrounded, several great cities, Lyons, Toulon, etc. made distinguished efforts to resist the oppressors of France, but in vain. The vigor of the national convention, and the bravery of her armies easily baffled these ill-concerted, though generous exertions, and the result served only to expose their authors to the increased fury of the revolutionary tempest.

The conflict between the abettors and the opponents of anarchy was still more remarkable in the western provinces of the kingdom, particularly in Vendée, whose religious and brave inhabitants had unanimously risen up in arms for the support of the ancient faith and government. The astonishing exploits of these heroic countrymen more than once caused the reigning impiety to tremble; unfortunately, incidents and obstacles beyond their control impeded their further progress. Their native land was devoted to all the atrocities of revenge; the Vendeans fell before an enraged and constantly increasing foe, but it was only after having fought seventeen pitched battles, mostly with success, and destroyed or dispersed nearly three hundred thousand of the best republican troops.

In another and more distant quarter, the French emigrants were not idle. Having formed themselves into a regular and gallant force under the command of the prince of Condé, *they* also evinced in various engagements that brilliant valor which always distinguished the French nobility; but their efforts, not being sufficiently seconded by the foreign powers, proved equally unsuccessful. The Austrians and Prussians, who had first made a rapid advance and gained great advantages over the republicans, suddenly abandoned the enterprise, and, being defeated by general Dumouriez at Valmy and Jemappes towards the close of 1792, evacuated the French territory.

The war however was not ended, but soon recommenced with still greater animosity than before, when the Austrians and Prussians who, just at that time, received a vast increase of power and territory from the dismemberment of Poland, were joined, in their confederacy against France, by Holland, England, and afterwards by Russia, which last country the genius of the empress Catherine II, and her recent victories over the Poles and the Turks, had now rendered most powerful. At the sight of this mighty coalition against the newly founded republic, one might naturally have anticipated her speedy downfal; and it is true that her armies occasionally experienced severe checks and defeats; still, *hers* generally were the honors and the advantages of the field; almost every where, her troops, guided by able generals, won the laurels of victory, and would have thrown imperishable glory round the French name, had they fought for a better cause.

Thus, after the defeat of Dumouriez at Nerwinde in 1793, Hoche and Pichegru succeeded in driving the allies beyond the Rhine. Jordan overthrew another of their armies near Fleurus, after an obstinate and protracted engagement, during which he skilfully made use of balloons to discover all the movements of the enemy (A. D. 1794). Belgium, Holland, and all the left side of the Rhine, being no longer protected by a sufficient number of troops, fell under the power of the victors. Such was, in 1795, the situation of affairs, when a still greater man appeared at the head of the Republican armies, who carried the military glory of France to its highest pitch, and, by a long series of brilliant achievements, cast all preceding adventurers into the shade.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, GENERAL AND CONSUL.

A. D. 1796—1804.

Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio in Corsica, some say, in 1768, but, according to other accounts and his own opinion, on the fifteenth of August, 1769. Having gone successfully through a course of studies in the military school of Brienne, he was appointed an officer in a corps of artillery, and when the French revolution broke out, warmly espoused and defended its cause. He signalized himself, in 1793, at the siege of Toulon, whose capture by the republicans was owing chiefly to his exertions; and still more so in 1795, when he rendered the national convention, at the close of its career, victorious over the Parisian populace. For these services rendered to the republic, Bonaparte demanded as a reward, and obtained from the directory which succeeded the convention, the chief command of the army in Italy (A. D. 1796).

In his very first campaign, he appeared a consummate general. Finding the troops in a state of great destitution and despondency, he first endeavored to animate their courage, and succeeded in infusing his own ardor into their breasts, by pointing out to them the fertile plains of Piedmont as the remuneration of their valor. He then opened that brilliant campaign, in which a bold natural genius, improved by a profound study of all the parts of warfare, enabled him to fight with astonishing success against the most experienced generals of the age. His peculiar mode of attack consisted in precision of movement, concentration of forces and formidable charges upon a determinate point. Having, from the beginning, cut off all communication between the Austrian and Sardinian troops, he gained, in a few weeks, the victories of Montenotte, Millesimo, Mondovi and Lodi, conquered Lombardy, and laid siege to Mantua, the strongest bulwark of Italy in that quarter.

The court of Vienna, sensible of the vast importance of that place, despatched numerous troops under able generals to its assistance; but their efforts were of no avail. One of the Austrian armies, led by the intrepid Wurmser, was signally defeated at Castiglione and Bassano; another, under the command of Alvinzi, was, after an obstinate conflict, driven from its formidable position at Arcola; and another, in fine, experienced a complete overthrow in the decisive battle of Rivoli. Throughout that series of bloody engagements, Bonaparte gave numerous instances of both tactical ability and personal valor. He soon reaped the fruit of his exertions; Mantua, reduced to the last extremity, was obliged to surrender; and the French saw themselves undisputed masters of all northern Italy (A. D. 1797). The treaty of Campo Formio, concluded in the same year with Austria, secured this brilliant success; whilst, in virtue of other agreements, an end was put to the independence of the Venetian republic, and enormous contributions were levied on other Italian States in behalf of the conquerors.

Bonaparte now thought of undertaking a grand expedition into the East, where he would be placed beyond the reach of any superior command, and enabled to destroy the British power in India. The French directory, who began to dread his influence in the government, and were glad to get rid of him in an honorable manner, willingly gave their consent to the projected expedition. Four hundred transports and thirteen ships of the line were assembled in the port of Toulon to convey to Egypt forty thousand warriors, together with a great number of learned men, and all the materials requisite for the conquest, the exploration and the colonization of that distant country.

This powerful armament sailed on the twentieth of May, 1798, and, after taking easy possession of Malta through the treachery of some knights and the pusillanimity of the grand-master, safely reached the Egyptian shores. The troops were landed, and began the work of conquest by the capture of Alexandria.

Their subsequent victory over the Mamelukes in the celebrated battle of the Pyramids, rendered them masters of Cairo and Lower Egypt. But the fleet, under admiral Brueys, was almost entirely destroyed in the bay of Aboukir by the English admiral Nelson; and the land troops themselves were foiled in their attempt upon Acre in Palestine. Moreover, their numbers were daily thinned by distemper or excessive fatigue; and though they continued to perform prodigies of valor under Bonaparte and Kleber, his successor in command, they were at length unable to cope successfully with the combined forces of the English and Turks. A capitulation followed, in virtue of which they were not only allowed to return, but even afforded the means of returning to their native country.

Their departure from Egypt had been preceded by that of Bonaparte, whom the course of events in France had recalled to Paris. Seeing that his arrival there was greeted with general congratulation and rejoicing, he skilfully availed himself of these favorable dispositions, to overturn the unpopular government of the directory; and, causing a new form of government to be adopted, was appointed its head and sovereign leader under the title of first consul (A. D. 1799).

During his absence, Italy had been the theatre of surprising revolutions. The French republicans, not satisfied with their late conquests, had further indulged their ambition and rapacity, by invading the Ecclesiastical State, taking possession of Rome, and dragging into exile the unoffending and venerable Pope Pius VI, who soon died at Valence in France, at the age of eighty-two years (1799). The kings of Naples and Sardinia were likewise driven from their continental dominions; and the whole peninsula now appeared prostrate at the feet of the French, when suddenly at the northern frontier the hero of Russia, Suwarrow, made his appearance with an Austro-Russian army proud of fighting under such a leader, the irresistible foe of the Turks and the Poles. One campaign of this great man was sufficient to wrest from the possession of the French those fair Italian provinces, which they had acquired with so much labor and loss of life. However, it seemed as if Suwarrow had come for no other purpose than to facilitate the election of a new Pontiff: no sooner had he prepared the way for it by compelling the revolutionary troops to evacuate Italy, than, finding himself ill seconded by the Austrians, he was obliged to retreat across the Alps before the superior force of General Massena, and by incredible efforts, to extricate the sad remnant of his once flourishing and victorious army.

The road into the peninsula being thus again opened to the French, Bonaparte did not fail to seize the favorable occasion for the recovery of his former conquests. Treading in the bold steps of Annibal, he fearlessly crossed with his army the most dangerous steeps of the Alps, and in a few weeks reached Marengo, where the Austrians under General Melas occupied a strong position. Here, on the fourteenth of June, 1800, a most obstinate and fierce battle was fought, which lasted from morning till night. Nearly the whole day, the French were on the point of being entirely defeated, but the timely arrival of General Dessaix with his division of fresh troops enabled them at length to gain a signal and decisive victory, which made them once more masters of northern Italy.

The celebrated general Moreau was not less successful in Bavaria and near the banks of the Danube. The important victories of Hochstadt and Hohenlinden led him almost to the gates of Vienna; and the Austrian court, destitute of further resources, was obliged to conclude the disadvantageous peace of Luneville, which ceded the whole left bank of the Rhine to the French republic. Russia and

Spain had already laid down their arms, so that England was left alone to continue the struggle. Her navy, it is true, constantly retained the empire of the seas, capturing the remaining squadrons and colonies of the French, driving them from the island of Malta, and severely harassing near Copenhagen the fleet of Denmark, which government had become favorable to the interests of France. Still, as these actions, brilliant though they were, did not strike at the continental superiority of Bonaparte, the continuation of the war seemed to be without an object. Negotiations were opened, and the two parties agreeing to restore several of their conquests, the definitive treaty was signed at Amiens, on the twenty-seventh of March, 1802, to the great joy of both the French and English.

Bonaparte spent the short interval which elapsed between the cessation and the renewal of hostilities, in performing several acts of a vigorous and generally very useful administration. In compliance with a concordate agreed upon between him and Pope Pius VII, he reestablished religious worship in France; reorganized the public instruction; published a civil code; afforded great facilities to commerce; and greatly embellished Paris with new buildings and monuments. But he, at the same time, for ever blasted his memory by the rigor with which he prosecuted as guilty of treason the two illustrious commanders Moreau and Pichegru, one of whom was sent into exile, and the other was found dead in his prison before the conclusion of the trial. Still more odious was the juridical assassination of the Duke D'Enghien, a young and hopeful prince of the Bourbon family, who, contrary to all right, was arrested upon a foreign territory, hurried to Paris, and, after a mock trial, shot during the night in the ditch of the castle of Vincennes. In fine, the measure adopted by the French government to crush entirely the insurrection, which had now lasted twelve years, of the blacks against the whites of San-Domingo, proved likewise the more prejudicial to the first consul's glory, as it was, if not perfidious, at least ungenerous and imprudent. The chief leader of the insurgents being, notwithstanding his previous submission, arrested and sent a captive to France, the exasperated blacks completed with fire and sword the destruction of the French colony, and on its bloody ruins began to erect the new republic of Hayti.

During all these transactions, Bonaparte was chiefly intent on establishing his power upon a firm basis. After causing himself to be named consul for life, with liberty to appoint his successor, he finally resolved to assume the sceptre. Addresses were made by the civil and military bodies, offering him the imperial dignity, which he condescended to accept. He was crowned *emperor of the French*, in December 1804, by the Pope himself, who, wishing to avoid the fatal consequences of a refusal, went to Paris for that purpose. Spain, Prussia and all the other European powers, except England, acknowledged Napoleon in this new title, to which he soon added the appellation of *king of Italy;* while the successor of Maria Theresa and of Charles V, Francis II, changed also his title of *emperor of Germany*, into that of *emperor of Austria.*

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, EMPEROR.—A. D. 1805—1815.

Since the treaty of Amiens, the two rival cabinets of France and England had frequently expostulated with each other, either concerning the execution of the stipulated articles, or about other more or less important matters. Napoleon was particularly offended at the delay of Great Britain in evacuating the island of Malta; the English, on their side, thought they had equal reason to complain of Napoleon's ambitious views and continual increase of power on the continent. War, therefore, was again declared; and for several years the world beheld the singular spectacle of the equally extraordinary success of the French on land, and of the English at sea.

Whilst the combined fleets of France and Spain were destroyed, near Cape Trafalgar, by the British admiral Nelson, who died, like Epaminondas, in the moment of victory, Napoleon, after vainly threatening England with an invasion, made a decisive campaign against the Austro-Russians, her allies. Having, by a rapid advance, transported his troops into the heart of the enemy's country, he obliged the Austrian general Mack, at Ulm, to surrender with forty thousand men. Shortly after, he entered Vienna, and, pressing forward, soon overtook the army of the confederates, whom he attacked with all his forces near the village of Austerlitz. In this memorable action, which the soldiers called *the battle of the three emperors*, the superior genius and masterly movements of Napoleon gave him one of the most brilliant victories that the annals of war can present. It was with the greatest difficulty, that, rallying the remains of their routed armies, the two allied sovereigns effected their retreat. The Russian monarch retired towards his own dominions, and Francis of Austria was obliged to sign the treaty of Presburg, by which he lost more than twenty thousand square miles of territory, and two millions and a half of his subjects (A. D. 1805).

The conqueror resolved to chastise in the ensuing year the King of Prussia, who, previously to the overthrow of the allies at Austerlitz, had manifested hostile intentions against France. The battle of Jena (October, 1806), in which the Prussians lost fifty thousand men slain or taken prisoners, sufficed to place Berlin, their capital city, and nearly their whole kingdom at the mercy of the French. Bonaparte then marched a second time against the Russians, and, after the bloody and well contested battle of Eylau, entirely defeated them at Friedland (June, 1807). This series of victories led to the treaty of Tilsit, by which the King of Prussia yielded a great part of his dominions to the victors; and both he and the emperor of Russia promised to support the favorite scheme of Napoleon, which aimed at closing the European ports against the vessels of Great Britain, and was on that account named the continental system.

About this time also Bonaparte formed the confederation of the Rhine, or a coalition of German princes favorable to his interests; and raised the duchies of Bavaria, Wurtemburg and Saxony to the rank of kingdoms, as a reward for the services which their sovereigns had, in quality of allies, rendered to the French during the last expeditions. In order to prevent the Danes from imitating their example, the British government compelled them to surrender their whole fleet, consisting of sixteen ships of the line and fifteen frigates, which were all conveyed to England. This haughty proceeding did little honor to the character of Great-Britain, and, even in a political point of view, was perhaps more unfavorable than really advantageous to her cause, as it provoked against her the indignation and resentment of her most powerful ally, the emperor of Russia.

War had scarcely ceased in one country, when it commenced or was revived in another. The Austrians, exasperated by the lofty pretensions and the encroaching measures of Napoleon, determined to oppose them again in the field. They made, for that purpose, truly gigantic exertions, raising their armies to the extraordinary number of five hundred and fifty thousand men; still, in spite of their unyielding courage and the abilities of their chief commander, Archduke Charles, this new struggle proved fully as disastrous to their arms as any preceding conflict. The French poured with their usual rapidity upon the German provinces, gained four victories within five days, and took Vienna for the second time. Their subsequent repulse at Esling cost them, it is true, thirty thousand brave soldiers with the intrepid Marshal Lannes, and exposed them to a complete overthrow; but the Austrian prince, though possessed of remarkable talents, was not so capable of improving his advantage, as his enemy was of remedying his disaster. By prodigious exertions of energy, activity and skill, Napoleon soon found himself in readiness to renew the attack, and, on the sixth of July, the dreadful battle of Wagram was fought, in which it is supposed that three hundred thousand men were engaged, and which terminated in the entire defeat of the Austrians. Their sovereign was compelled once more to sue for peace, nor could he obtain it but by making new concessions of a large extent of territory, and giving his daughter Maria Louisa in marriage to the victorious emperor.

Napoleon had now reached the summit of power and glory. Having reared the edifice of his greatness by continual and almost unexampled success in war; supported in that high station by formidable armies, excellent generals, and the superiority of his talents; enjoying the satisfaction of having placed his brothers, Louis, Jerome, Joseph, and his brother-in-law, Murat, upon the thrones of Holland, Westphalia, Spain and Naples; his own royal and imperial authority seemed to rest on the strongest basis that could be desired. Yet, this powerful conqueror, this mighty sovereign, was destined to experience the utmost severity of fortune, and that too, in a manner so much the more striking, as he began, just at the time of his splendid expedition of Wagram, to dig with his own hands the precipice into which he was soon to fall from his elevated station.

Elated with prosperity, and anxious to bring every thing under his control, Napoleon solicited the Pope to close his harbors against British commerce, and become a party to the war against England and Russia. This Pius VII positively and constantly refused; being, he answered, the Father of all Christian nations, he could not, consistently with that character, become the enemy of any one. The emperor was highly incensed at this courageous refusal, and determined on following a more audacious course to gratify his ambition. By a decree dated at Vienna, the seventeenth of May, 1809, he declared the Ecclesiastical State annexed to his empire; and, as this unwarrantable proceeding was instantly punished with excommunication, the French troops who had already taken possession of Rome, received an order to send the excellent Pontiff into captivity and exile. This outrageous act filled up the measure of Napoleon's blindness and ingratitude, and, by provoking alike the justice of God and the indignation of all sensible men, was undoubtedly the chief among the remote causes of his subsequent downfal.

Equally ungrateful towards the Spaniards, his most faithful allies, Bonaparte invaded their country as well as Portugal, and, after the forced resignation of King Charles IV and of his son Ferdinand, placed his own brother Joseph upon the Spanish throne. The whole kingdom was overrun, and nearly all its fortified places were surprised or conquered by different bodies of French troops under the command of Murat, Ney, Massena, Suchet, Soult, Marmont, etc. and sometimes of Napoleon himself. These able commanders, well provided with all things necessary for a vigorous warfare, and almost constantly receiving strong reinforcements, gained easy victories over the brave but astounded and now inexperienced Spaniards. Still, the conquerors did not make such rapid progress without suffering great losses, and occasionally meeting with very serious disasters. Seventeen thousand of their troops were obliged to surrender at Baylen to General Castanos; their subsequent capture of Saragossa, so nobly defended during two months by the heroic Palafox, cost them an immense multitude of their bravest warriors, and they completely failed in the siege of Cadiz. Moreover, in the midst of a magnanimous people, persons of all classes, of every age and condition, became soldiers for the defence of their liberties and country. Swarms of guerillas or partisans continually harassed the march of the French armies, attacking their separate detachments, intercepting the convoys, and cutting off the stragglers.

The territory was occupied, but the nation was not subdued; and Spain seemed to have become a vast and profound abyss destined to swallow up the numberless troops of Napoleon, in proportion as they made their appearance.

Next to this unanimous effort of the Spanish population, nothing contributed more powerfully to rid the country of its invaders, than the efforts of the celebrated Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. This great man first signalised himself at the head of the troops sent from England to the relief of the Peninsula. Being, after many exploits, appointed commander-in-chief of the Portuguese and Spanish, as he was already of the British forces, he was enabled to display his talent with greater advantage, and vigorously to pursue his former success. Several times he had been compelled to retreat before the overwhelming numbers of the enemy, but he repeatedly regained the ground that had beeen lost, and after defeating the French at Talavera in 1809, at Busaco in 1810, and at Salamanca in 1812, he finally drove them from Spain by the signal victory of Vittoria (A. D. 1813).

Precisely at this time, northern and central Europe, uniting in one general league against Bonaparte, for ever shook off the yoke of his ambition. A little before, in 1812, he had declared a new war against the Russians, under the plea that they favored British commerce, and had marched into their country with an army of nearly five hundred thousand men, French or allies, perfectly equipped and well disciplined. In the presence of such a host, the most formidable, it may be said, that the world ever beheld, the enemy, far inferior in numbers, wisely adopted the plan of acting on the defensive, and making a stand only in favorable positions. In its retreat, the Russian army laid waste all the country through which the invaders had to pass, and burnt the towns where they might have found a shelter. Even Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia, which the French at last reached after the bloody victories of Smolensk and Moscowa, was nobly sacrificed to save the empire; during the very first night after their arrival, the city was simultaneously fired in several parts, and in a short time reduced to a heap of ruins.

Thus deprived of winter quarters and of necessary provisions, in the midst of an exasperated enemy, who had now collected his forces, Napoleon, after in vain offering peace to the emperor Alexander, commenced a retreat on the nineteenth of October. He had not proceeded far, when famine began to rage among his wearied troops; the Russian army, hovering around them, incessantly harassed and obstructed their march, especially at the crossing of rivers; winter set in with unusual rigor; and the mortality arising from these various causes became so dreadful, that, when the campaign closed (on the thirteenth of December), it was found that upwards of two hundred and fifty thousand men had perished, besides nearly two hundred thousand made prisoners.

Thus ended the memorable Russian expedition, the first of Napoleon's undertakings in which he was completely defeated, and one too, whose further consequences were for him of the most disastrous character. Prussia and Sweden now joined the Russians against the French emperor, and Austria with Bavaria soon imitated their example. Bonaparte, however, was not yet disposed to descend from his high pretensions, and having, by astonishing exertions, recruited his army to the amount of about two hundred and eighty thousand men, fearlessly encountered his still more numerous foes in the eventful campaign of Saxony (A. D. 1813). Such was even now the display of his military abilities and the courage of his troops, that he routed the allies at Lutzen, Bautzen and Dresden with great slaughter, yet without any permanent advantage. Their numbers always appeared the same, and seemed rather to be daily increasing. They attacked him again under the walls of Leipzig with three hundred thousand troops and nine hundred field pieces, whilst he could not concentrate on that point more than one hundred and seventy thousand men with seven hundred pieces of artillery. The conflict was one of the most awful during that tremendous war, and such as language cannot describe. During three days, the French maintained their position with undaunted courage, having, it is said, shot from their cannons the enormous number of two hundred and fifty thousand balls; but, on the third day, being abandoned by the Saxons their allies, and overpowered by numbers, they were finally compelled to quit the field, with the dreadful loss of forty thousand men, besides a vast multitude of prisoners taken during the pursuit. Still, the vanquished preserved their usual intrepidity, which they displayed at Hanau, by defeating the Bavarians who had presumed to intercept their retreat. A free passage was thus opened for them to the French frontier; but their conquests in Germany were lost for ever.

Napoleon was now deserted by all his allies, and obliged to withstand alone the efforts of the European league formed against him. The beginning of the year 1814 beheld half a million of men, Austrians, Russians, Prussians, etc. under their respective sovereigns, rush from all directions upon the French territory. They had previously issued a manifesto declaring their intention both to maintain France in all her rights as a nation, and to crush the military system of her present ambitious ruler; a twofold object which their moderation and their decisive measures soon enabled them to attain. It was to no effect that Napoleon, by new prodigies of activity and courage, defeated the allies at Brienne, Montereau, Champeaubert and Montmirail. Having made a better disposition of their forces, they at length moved towards Paris, and arrived near that capital before the French emperor, who was engaged elsewhere, could come to its relief.

After a vigorous, though short and hopeless resistance from the heights of Montmartre, terms of capitulation were signed; and, on the thirty-first of March, the allied sovereigns, with fifty thousand chosen troops, made their solemn entry into Paris, amidst the general and continued plaudits of the inhabitants, who received them more as deliverers than as conquerors. A provisional government was formed, and a decree passed by the Senate, declaring that Napoleon Bonaparte had forfeited the throne. It was also decided that the Bourbon dynasty should be restored, France, in the mean while, being allowed by the generosity of the allies not only to retain her ancient limits, but even to receive some augmentation of territory and recover her colonies. As to the fallen emperor, the island of Elba, in the Mediterranean, was allotted to be possessed by him in full sovereignty, with an annual revenue of six millions of francs.

The allied monarchs soon left Paris, where Louis XVIII, brother to Louis XVI, arrived on the third of May, 1814, to take possession of his throne. The Pope, after five years captivity, had returned to Rome; Bonaparte had also departed for his new residence; and Europe, after such tremendous agitations, began to enjoy a long desired and much needed repose, when the storm again burst upon it with renewed fury. The unexpected news arrived, that the dethroned emperor had escaped from his island and landed on the shores of Provence with an escort of nine hundred men. In fact, he was already on his way to Paris; the troops joined him from all quarters, and, on the twentieth of March, he triumphantly entered the capital, which Louis XVIII had left but a few hours before, in order to reach the northern frontier.

The account of Napoleon's return quickly reached the ears of the great European potentates, then assembled at Vienna for the purpose of settling upon a sure basis the affairs of the continent. Surprised and afflicted, but not dismayed, they declared that the ex-emperor of the French, by breaking the last treaty, "had placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations," and pledged themselves not to lay down their arms until he should be deprived of the power of ever again disturbing the tranquillity of the world. Bonaparte, on his side, was not idle in making adequate preparations for the approaching conflict. Having reorganized his army, he rapidly advanced towards the Belgian frontier, in order to attack the English under Wellington, and the Prussians under Blucher, before they could be joined by the Austrians and the Russians. His first operations were prosperous, the allies being obliged to make a retrograde movement, and the Prussians in particular having suffered a severe check in the battle of Ligny. He now directed his main efforts against the English, who had just taken a formidable position near Waterloo; and, on the eighteenth of June, 1815, was fought the decisive battle on which the peace of Europe and his own fate depended.

The two armies, under the command of such wonderful men as Napoleon and Wellington, presented the most imposing and terrific appearance: they were nearly equal as well in discipline, valor and fierce national animosity, as in numbers, which amounted to about seventy-five thousand men on each side. How dreadful must have been the conflict between troops of this character, every one may easily conceive. It commenced about noon with a tremendous cannonade, and was continued many hours with almost frantic fury, the French infantry and cavalry making incessant and desperate charges, which were all met with dauntless courage. Towards seven o'clock in the evening, Bonaparte determined to carry his point by redoubled efforts, ordered, in person, a new powerful attack upon the British line; his celebrated guard resolutely advanced in the form of a double column, but was received with so galling a fire from the enemy's artillery and musketry as to be soon compelled to give way, and had to sustain in their turn a similar charge from the English. Just at this decisive moment, the Prussians, having by a skilful march deceived Grouchy, who was opposed to them, joined their allies, and opened a heavy cannonade on the right wing and rear of the French. It was a moment of irretrievable confusion: those brave columns of Napoleon, just before so formidable, now broken and unable to rally, at last fled from that scene of carnage where they left twenty thousand slain, and, being closely pursued by the Prussians, dispersed in every direction. Truly awful was the loss of the English also in this tremendous battle, since it amounted to six hundred officers, eleven generals, and fifteen thousand men killed and wounded. Still, the victory of the allies was complete; the whole artillery of the vanquished army, consisting of three hundred guns, fell into their hands, and the power of Bonaparte was now prostrated, to rise no more.

Wellington, not being opposed in his march, soon appeared with his victorious troops in sight of Paris. That capital was again entered and occupied for a time by the confederates; while the remains of the imperial army were obliged to retreat beyond the river Loire. The Bourbons once more recovered their vacillating throne; but France was not so advantageously treated by the allied monarchs as she had been at the time of the first invasion: besides a variety of severe or humiliating measures to which she had to submit, she was condemned to pay about seven hundred and fifty millions of francs as an indemnification for the expenses of the war.

In the mean time, Bonaparte, who had already left Paris, withdrew to Rochefort, a sea-port on the western coast of France, in hopes of being able to effect his passage to America. That port was, however, too closely blockaded by English cruisers, to permit any escape; the emperor, seeing all his attempts to effect his purpose ineffectual, resolved at length to throw himself on the protection of the British government, and went on board their ship of the line, the Bellerophon, stationed at a short distance from the shore. It was immediately determined to send him to St. Helena, a remote island in the middle of the Atlantic, as a place where he could be kept in perfect security, without too much confinement or restraint. Here, in the society of a few devoted friends who had chosen to accompany him to the place of his exile, he lived about six years, spending much time and labor in dictating memoirs of his own life. The assistance of a priest and the succors of religion which he had earnestly begged, consoled his last moments; and the fifth of May, 1821, closed the earthly career of that extraordinary man before whom Europe had so long trembled, and who, notwithstanding the sad reverses which clouded the evening of his life, is justly considered the most powerful genius and the greatest captain of the age.

SECOND AMERICAN WAR.—A. D. 1812—1815.

England was not yet disengaged from her perilous and gigantic struggle against the emperor of the French, when, by a series of attempts on the liberties of maritime commerce, she again provoked the hostility of the Americans. This may be called a political fault so much the greater, as the United States had, during the last years, rapidly increased in population, wealth and power, both from the tide of emigration, the industry of their inhabitants, and the accession of many new states, Louisiana, Kentucky, Ohio, etc. to their confederacy. New causes of provocation continuing to take place between the ships of the two nations, and the majority of the American people being desirous of war for the redress of their grievances, Congress openly declared it on the eighteenth of June, 1812.

Its commencement was very unfavorable to the arms of the United States, as all attempts then made at the northern frontier to invade Canada were not only fruitless, but also attended with a considerable loss of men and ammunition. However, the spirit of the people was not subdued, nor the army disheartened, and before the close of the year 1813, they began to reap the fruit of their perseverance by capturing, under the direction of Commodore Perry, the whole British fleet on Lake Erie, and gaining, under General Harrison, the victory of the Thames, which recovered the posts previously surrendered to the enemy. Another victory on land near the cataract of Niagara, and the destruction of another British flotilla on Lake Champlain, gave the Americans a decided superiority in those quarters, at least with regard to the defence and protection of their own territory.

Their warlike exertions upon the ocean were also generally fortunate; so much so, that almost every week brought the tidings of some brilliant capture made, or some splendid exploit achieved by the spirit and intrepidity of American seamen; but success upon the land was more equally divided. Five or six thousand troops under General Ross, having reached the vicinity of Washington, routed the American force, amounting to seven or eight thousand men, including militia. The city was abandoned by the president and the heads of departments, and soon after entered by the conquerors, who did not, however, occupy it more than one day. Elated with success, they resolved to undertake also the capture of Baltimore, intending to make this important place their winter quarters. Their landing at North Point, on the 11th of September, 1814, met with little or no opposition; but their general Ross being killed, on the 12th, in his advance towards the city, and all the attacks made by his vessels and troops on Fort McHenry being bravely repulsed, they were compelled to abandon the enterprise.

The English turned now their main efforts against the southern States. New Orleans being the principal object of their views, a powerful armament was fitted out for an attack on this opulent city. Fortunately, an able and experienced commander, one already distinguished for his feats of arms in other parts of the union, General Jackson, was there to oppose the progress of the enemy. Besides his regular troops and the militia of the neighboring States, he required of every citizen who could bear arms, to take an active part in the military operations on which the safety of all depended. The fortifications were strengthened; an extensive line of works was erected four miles below the town, well furnished with artillery; and, the better to protect his troops from the fire of the assailants, Jackson conceived the happy idea of covering the intrenchments with a great number of cotton bales. In this favorable position, he resolutely defied every attack of the enemy.

Towards the last days of December, 1814, the English, under the cover of their batteries, made several attempts to carry by storm the works before them; but they were invariably repulsed by the superior fire of the American artillery. The British then resolved to make a general assault, for which they appointed the eighth of January following. It lasted about one hour and a half, during which the valor of the assailants only served to expose them without adequate defence to the incessant and destructive fire from the cannons and musketry of the besieged; while the breast-works of cotton-bales, which no ball could penetrate, afforded complete protection to their opponents. The British were obliged to retire from the sanguinary conflict with the loss of two thousand six hundred men, wounded, captured, or slain, including their general Packenham and their chief officers; whilst the victorious Americans had not lost, in this decisive action, more than six killed and seven wounded.

The news of this important victory filled the whole country with exultation, and was the closing event of the second American war. Shortly after, intelligence was received from Europe of the peace concluded by the American and English commissioners assembled at Ghent for that purpose. The treaty, already signed hy the court of England, was ratified by the President and Senate of the United States in February, 1815; and thus, in the same year, with the interval of a few months, peace was reestablished in America by the treaty of Ghent, and in Europe by the second fall of Bonaparte.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE CIVILIZED WORLD,

FROM THE YEAR 1815, TO THE YEAR 1842.

CONCLUSION.

SINCE the eventful period of the battles of New Orleans and Waterloo, most of the civilized nations of the world have been in a state of comparative tranquillity. Fortunately for the rising generation, neither sovereigns nor their subjects seem inclined to indulge any longer that fatal ardor for military glory which characterized the preceding epochs. The leading powers, whether in America or Europe, appear generally desirous to enjoy in repose the laurels which their respective countries formerly won in the field, and to contend for the palm of national preeminence only by the arts of peaceful and prosperous industry.

To Great Britain, above all, belongs the honor of having arrested the course of the French revolutionary armies and of Napoleon's ambitious career. Notwithstanding the heavy taxes laid on her citizens, and the prodigious amount of her national debt, which is about four billions of dollars, she seems to have attained the height of power and political influence, chiefly by the superiority of her naval force. In late years, the world has beheld her successful exertions in protecting the independence of Greece against the Turks, and the Turks themselves against the encroachments of the New Egyptian dynasty; defending her immense possessions in the East and West; chastising the pirates of the Mediterranean; attacking the Chinese, and compelling them to conclude a disadvantageous peace, etc. Among the transactions of her civil government in the same period, the most remarkable is the act of emancipation from civil disabilities and persecuting laws, granted to her Catholic subjects in 1829; an example of moderation and justice highly worthy of a generous nation, yet little valued, and still less imitated by the contemporary sovereigns of Prussia (Frederic IV) and Russia (Nicholas I).*

Like Great Britain, France has continued, after so many agitations and storms, to occupy that high national rank which her advantageous position, her vast resources of soil and industry, and the lofty spirit of her people call her to hold among the chief European powers. Neither the clashing of parties, nor the substitution of the Orleans in the place of the Bourbon dynasty, has prevented her from securing additional lustre to the glory of her arms. Not only did she amply share with England and Russia in the victory gained at Navarino over the Turks; but the successful expedition of Spain under Louis XVIII, the still more brilliant conquest of Algiers under Charles X, the siege of Antwerp and the capture of Vera Cruz under Louis Philip, have again shewn to the world, what, even after the disasters of Napoleon's last campaigns, can be effected by French valor, skill and discipline. The last named sovereign is yet seated upon the throne, and, notwithstanding a thousand difficulties, holds the reins of government with such firmness and prudence, as to attract the admiration even of his enemies. Fortunate will it be for his family and intended successor, if the measures which he has taken in consequence of the premature death of his son, the Duke of Orleans (1842), or the prolongation of his own life, should remove the evils which ordinarily attend the minority of a sovereign.

Austria, Russia and Prussia, which formerly suffered most from the wars of Bonaparte, have not only repaired their losses, but even acquired, in the final settlement of their claims, a greater extent of territory. Among the chief European states, Spain has been, and is still the most unfortunate. In consequence of the impolitic measures of King Ferdinand VII, and a variety of other causes, factions and civil wars have continued, almost without interruption, during the last twenty years, to desolate that noble country, the land of chivalry and heroism. Spain, formerly so much celebrated for her national and political strength, so long placed at the head of European civilization, is now plunged in an abyss of confusion, and a prey to calamities the end of which no human sagacity can foresee.

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* See Note G.

Nor is this deplorable train of internal evils the only misfortune that has befallen the Spaniards during the present century. All their ancient dominions in the New World, except Cuba and Porto Rico, have of late thrown off their allegiance to the mother country, and formed themselves into independent governments, viz. Buenos Ayres, in 1816; Chili, 1818; Peru and Bolivia, 1821–1824; Colombia, towards 1820, divided into three separate states in 1831; Guatimala and Mexico, 1820–1824. All these regions have become so many confederacies or republics from which others have successively sprung up, such as Texas, in 1836, by its total separation from Mexico. But in none of them, perhaps, is the government as yet firmly settled; nor do they assume any flourishing and powerful aspect, approaching in the least to that of the United North American States.

Here, notwithstanding some embarrassments in the finances, the country has been constantly advancing in population and national importance. The number of its inhabitants is five times greater than it was sixty years since, at the close of the war of independence. Several new States have been added to the Union; agriculture and manufactures are prosperous; foreign commerce is carried on upon an extensive scale; and there exists, moreover, an immense inland trade, by means of the numerous navigable streams, canals and rail-roads by which the country is intersected. All these advantages, together with the extent and resources of the land, the wisdom of its rulers, and the active, industrious, elevated spirit of the people, leave little room to doubt, that the United States are destined to possess a very considerable share of influence in the future destinies of the civilized world.

But let us always remember, as Bossuet observes, that this connexion of particular causes which destroy empires and establish others in their place, depends upon the secret orders of Divine Providence. God, from the highest heavens, holds the reins of all the kingdoms of the earth in his hands. When he wishes to make conquerors, he causes terror to march before them, and inspires them and their soldiers with invicible courage; when he intends to make lawgivers, he sends to them his spirit of wisdom and foresight, enabling them to prevent the evils that threaten states, and to lay the foundation of public tranquillity. It is thus that God reigns over all nations, and exercises his judgments upon them, according to the rules of his ever unerring justice.

Let us speak no more of chance nor of fortune, or speak of them only as of names with which we cover our ignorance. What is chance to our uncertain views, is a concerted design in a higher counsel, that is, in that eternal counsel which comprises all causes and effects in one and the same order. Thus is verified the saying of the Apostle that, God *is the Blessed and only Mighty, the King of kings, and Lord of lords.* (1 Tim. vi. 15). *Blessed*, whose peace is unalterable, who sees every thing change, without himself changing, and who effects all changes by an immutable counsel; who gives and takes away power; who transfers it from one individual to another, from one dynasty to another, from one people to another, to shew that they all hold it by a precarious tenure, and that in Him alone it essentially resides.

Thus we have beheld the series of great empires and states which have figured on the theatre of the world during eighteen centuries. While we see them successively appear and disappear, some falling, as it were, of themselves, and others rising in their place; while the Religion of Christ, in the midst of these vicissitudes, invariably maintains her strength and dignity; we may easily understand where solid greatness exists, and where a prudent man should place his hopes and all his affections. (See *Discourse on Universal History*, Part III. last chapter).

OF HIS KINGDOM THERE SHALL BE NO END.

NOTES.

NOTE A.—PAGE 96

ON THE PROSECUTION AND ABOLITION OF THE KNIGHTS-TEMPLARS

THE authentic acts of the whole trial of the Knights-Templars, are still extant (*apud* Natal. Alexand., *Dissert.* X. *in Sec.* XIV. *Quæst.* II *Art.* I;—Brumoy, *Hist. de l'Eglise Gall.*, *l.* XXXVI, *ad ann.* 1307—1312; —Dupuy,—Baluze, etc). From those documents it is manifest that the royal commissaries, men of exemplary virtue and probity, examined a vast number of Templars in the different parts of France, viz: one hundred and forty at Paris, one hundred and eleven at Troyes, eleven at Caen, ten at Pont-de l'Arche, forty-five at Beaucaire and neighboring places; and that all, except three, acknowledged themselves guilty of the denial of Christ, of sacrilege, and other abominable crimes.

We have moreover the acts of the Council of Vienne (Labbe, *Collectio Conciliorum*, *vol.* XI, *part* II, *Col.* 1557—1560), and the letters of Pope Clement V (*ibid: Col.* 1559 and 1572) concerning this affair. In one of these, addressed to all the Christian princes in Europe, the Pontiff declares that, he himself having examined seventy-two Templars on the charge of apostacy, sacrilege and other crimes, they had *expressly, spontaneously* and *repeatedly* acknowledged the justice of the charges; and that the same *free and spontaneous* acknowledgment was made, in presence of his delegates, by the grand-master and other chief personages of the order. Nor was this depravity, although more common among the Templars in France, confined to that country; several others were found guilty of the same enormous crimes in Tuscany, Lombardy, England, etc. (Natalis Alexander, in *Dissertatione citatâ*, *vol.* VII, *pp.* 505 *and* 512;—*Hist. de l'Egl. Gall. vol.* XII, *pp.* 431 *and* 433). The Pope, therefore, with the approbation of the general council then assembled at Vienne, published his bull suppressing the institute, on account of the infamy of so many among its members, which had made it an object of contempt and scandal; and decreed that their property should be given for ever to the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem.

The whole transaction being thus stated from original and authentic sources, it is surely impossible for any reflecting mind to consider the series and duration of the inquiries; the fair manner in which they were conducted; the great number of witnesses that were heard; the perfect agreement in the avowals made by the accused in so many different parts of Christendom; the high standing and character of their judges, who were the first and most commendable personages of the church and state; in fine, the deliberations and unanimous decision of the Pope and of three hundred prelates assembled in the Council of Vienne: it is, I say, impossible to take all these circumstances into consideration, without being at once fully convinced that the Templars deserved to be suppressed, and that the sentence pronounced against their Order, in the Council of Vienne, was not only proper and just, but even, being the only sure means to remove a shameful scandal, ought to be considered as a very signal service rendered by Pope Clement V and King Philip, to religion and society.

Who will not, after this, feel astounded and indignant at the following narrative of Hume, when, having stated the indolence and degeneracy of the Templars, he adds, in his usual positive manner:

"But, though these reasons had weakened the foundations of this Order, once so celebrated and revered, the immediate cause of their destruction proceeded from the cruel and vindictive spirit of Philip the Fair, who, having entertained a private disgust against some eminent Templars, determined to gratify at once his avidity and revenge, by involving the whole Order in an undistinguished ruin. On no better information than that of two Knights, condemned by their superiors to perpetual imprisonment for their vices and profligacy, he ordered on one day all the Templars in France to be committed to prison, and imputed to them such enormous and absurd crimes, as are sufficient of themselves to destroy all the credit of the accusation. Above a hundred of these unhappy gentlemen were put to the question, in order to extort from them a confession of their guilt. The more obstinate perished in the hands of their tormenters: several, to procure immediate ease in the violence of their agonies, acknowledged whatever was required of them: forged confessions were imputed to others; and Philip, as if their guilt were now certain, proceeded to a confiscation of all their treasures."

The writer then proceeds to relate, at great length, the punishment inflicted on the Templars; which indeed he does with affected pathos, but not without several inaccuracies; and at last concludes thus:

"In all this barbarous injustice, Clement V, who was a creature of Philip, and then resided in France, fully concurred; and, without examining a witness, or making an inquiry into the truth of facts, he summarily, by the plenitude of his apostolic power, abolished the whole Order. The Templars, all over Europe, were thrown into prison; their conduct underwent a strict scrutiny; the power of their enemies still pursued and oppressed them; but no where, except in France, were the smallest traces of their pretended guilt to be found. England sent an ample testimony of their piety and morals; but, as the Order was now annihilated, the Knights were distributed into several convents, and their possessions were, by command of the Pope, transferred to the order of St. John." (*History of England, reign of Edward* II).

Such is, concerning the affair of the Knights-Templars, the narrative of Hume, which evinces indeed much of the inventive imagination of an orator, but very little of the exactness and sincerity of an historian. Here we see an almost uninterrupted series of inaccuries and falsehoods blended with some true statements, a violent spirit of rancor against one of the two interested parties, scarcely concealed under the veil of affected compassion for the other, and an inveterate desire of finding fault with the conduct of the Pontiff and the King. The author takes little care to relate facts in the order in which they happened, and does not even know the names of several among the chief personages of whom he speaks, calling the grand-master *John* instead of *James* of Molay; and the companion of his punishment, *a brother to the sovereign of Dauphiny*, instead of *a brother to the Dauphin of Auvergne;* mistaking likewise the place in which they underwent their last trial, for that in which they suffered death. These blunders, however, are mere trifles, compared with the calumnious charges of precipitancy and want of investigation; of violence employed to extort a confession of guilt; of avarice and revenge; of injustice and barbarity; which he so readily lavishes on King Philip the fair and Pope Clement V, and which we will now successively examine.

1st. It is wrong to state that King Philip ordered the imprisonment of all the Templars in France on the mere deposition of two knights. Before issuing this order, he had instituted new inquiries which gave additional strength to the former charges. Hence it is manifest that the imputation of enormous crimes to the Order of the Templars did not proceed from that monarch, as Hume asserts, but from the very members of the Order, it being, moreover, justified by their proverbially bad character, which gave rise to the expression, *boire comme un Templier.*

2d. It is equally false that the confessions of the Templars with regard to the crimes imputed to them, were forged, or wrung from them by the violence of torture. The one hundred and forty knights who were tried by the royal commissaries at Paris, and the seventy-two others whom the Pope himself examined at Poitiers, were not tortured, but voluntarily and freely confessed their guilt (see again Brumoy;—Natalis Alexander;—especially the letters of Pope Clement V, quoted above;—also Bergier, *Diction. Théolog.* art. *Templiers).* The grand-master and the chief commanders did the same, without any constraint whatever; *liberè ac spontè, absque coactione quâlibet et timore.* Most of them persevered in their avowals; and, if several afterwards retracted what they had said, this circumstance may prove indeed that they could no longer bear to see themselves the object of public scorn, but not that they were sincere in their retractation. For, how many culprits are there, who obstinately maintain their innocence, notwithstanding the clear evidence of the crimes laid to their charge, or, changing their plan of defence, deny what they had previously confessed, or vice versâ.

3d. Notwithstanding the peremptory assertion of Hume, that no where but in France were there to be found the smallest traces of what he calls the pretended guilt of the Templars, the contrary is certain from various testimonies concerning the Templars of Tuscany, Lombardy, and even England, as Walsingham relates (*Hist. Angl. in vitâ Edward* II), and Dr. Lingard acknowledges with regard to a few individuals (*Hist. of Engl. vol.* III, *p.* 472). It appears, indeed, that in several countries, most of the accused were acquitted; but this only proves what we before said, that the Order was not equally corrupt every where, and that the poison of impiety and vice had not infected the whole body of the Knights-Templars, although it had tainted many of its members.—It was also incumbent on Mr. Hume to furnish some proofs of the reality of that *violent and universal persecution* which, he supposes, was carried on against the Templars, after the suppression of their institute: he probably thought it, as usual, an easier task to assert boldly than to prove. The truth is, there is no trace of such a persecution to be found in history.

4th. Groundless too is the assertion made by the same author, that King Philip acted as a vindictive and avaricious tyrant. That prince may have been too eager and hasty in his proceedings, particularly with regard to the chief personages of the Order; still, it ought to be observed that, in inflicting the rigorous punishment of death by fire, he merely followed the jurisprudence commonly adopted in those times against heinous crimes. With regard to the confiscation of the property of the Templars in France, there are undeniable proofs of the disinterestedness of Philip in this transaction; all that he did had for its object to preserve that property for the public utility of Christendom, as the Pope and the general council should deem advisable, nor did any portion of it pass into his own hands, except what was requisite to defray the expenses which he had incurred in so long and so complicated a suit. The immense possessions of the Templars (except those situated in Spain and Portugal), were, as is well known, and as Hume himself acknowledges, transferred to the order of St. John of Jerusalem.

5th. Still more iniquitous and atrocious than the preceding, is the charge of violence, injustice and barbarity directed against Pope Clement; who, far from acting as the unfaithful historian assures us he did, adopted the diametrically opposite course, as all the monuments and authentic acts of this important affair invariably testify. He continually endeavored to moderate the hasty temper of Philip; he constantly recommended equity and prudence to the commissaries appointed to preside in this complicated trial; neither he nor his legates had any thing to do with the precipitate condemnation of the grand-master. Whilst the papal commissaries heard upwards of two hundred witnesses either for or against the accused Order, Clement himself tried and examined seventy-two knights, with equal impartiality and care; he took all possible means to know the truth, and had recourse to all possible sources of information; in a word, he continued the inquiries with indefatigable patience during five years, before he would come to a decision respecting the Order, the persons, and the property of the Templars. Is there, in such conduct, any thing that savors in the least of *violence, injustice and barbarity?*

6th. Moreover, what can be more equitable, prudent and wise than the decision which the Pontiff, after long deliberation, and many conferences with the cardinals and other prelates, published in the second session of the Council of Vienne, on the third of April, 1312. In that document, he did not pronounce the whole Order guilty of the horrid crimes which had been the object of so many inquiries; but, considering the state of acknowledged degeneracy into which it had fallen, the infamy with which it was loaded by the mere imputation of such disorders, and the well ascertained guilt of many of its members, he abolished it as having become not only useless, but even an object of scandal to all Christendom.

Such was the dignified conduct which Hume has dared to brand with the appellation of *barbarous injustice,* and which another equally bold and superficial writer has presumed to call an *infamous proscription.* If there is, on this subject, any thing calculated to provoke the feelings of a just indignation, let the reader judge on which side it stands, on that of a Pontiff and a prince whose proceedings, throughout the whole of this grand affair, were marked with so much equity and disinterestedness; or on that of two unfaithful authors, who, careless about historical truth and justice, have ventured, without proof, and against all reason, to paint the important transaction in such sombre colors.

NOTE B.—PAGE 155.

ON THE INQUISITION.

WHAT has not been said about, or rather against, the Spanish Inquisition? We every where see it depicted in the blackest colors, and represented as the offspring of papal ambition and ecclesiastical tyranny; as a bloody tribunal, condemning innocent persons to death for mere thoughts and opinions; an institution, whose proceedings are the most terrific that human bigotry and malice could suggest; etc.

In answer to these charges we will remark, in the first place, that the Inquisition forms no part of the Catholic creed and obligatory discipline of the church. We find, it is true, that it was established in some Catholic states as a political means to maintain the unity of religion within their limits, and remove from them the disturbances occasioned by newly invented systems; but this was commonly done, either at the request, or by the authority of the sovereigns themselves, v. g., of King Ferdinand in Spain (A. D. 1480), of John III in Portugal (A. D. 1557). The Inquisition therefore, besides being a local and temporary institution, was rather *civil* than *ecclesiastical* in its origin. Its chief members, particularly in Spain, were indeed selected from the ecclesiastical order, but they always remained under the authority of the king, without whose previous consent their decrees could be neither executed nor even published.

In the second place, the Inquisition, far from being as bloody and inexorably severe as is commonly imagined, far from inflicting capital punishment even for mere thoughts and opinions, on the contrary never inflicted it even for open and atrocious crimes, the tribunal having never been authorized to pass sentence of death or of mutilation upon any person; this power resided entirely and solely in the civil authority. All that the council of the Inquisition had to do, was to pronounce the individual arraigned before them guilty, on the clearest evidence, of a crime declared capital by the law of Spain. There they stopped; and, instead of prosecuting to death, they rather displayed a degree of indulgence and clemency seldom witnessed in any other tribunal. If the culprit manifested sincere repentance, he was immediately screened from capital punishment, and condemned merely to undergo temporary and trifling penances. If, notwithstanding the convincing proofs of his guilt, he remained obstinate and impenitent, then, and not till then, was he delivered over to the civil power to be dealt with according to law. Surely this was his own fault; and, even then, the inquisitors recommended the wretched individual to the mercy of the secular judge.* They had nothing to do with his death; and, when, at the moment of execution, the priest appeared by the side of the guilty man, it was only to inspire him, if possible, with sentiments of repentance, to soothe his agony by words of consolation, and to prepare him for eternity.

Even admitting that some inquisitors, from time to time, acted with excessive rigor, which led to certain abuses and unjustifiable executions, still it is true that such proceedings should be charged only to the individuals in question, but not to the tribunal itself fairly considered in its nature, its end and its regulations; nor to the generality of its members, whose prudence, justice and integrity have elicited the admiration of all attentive and impartial travellers (v. g., Abbé de Vayrac, in his *Voyage en Espagne et en Italie*, 1731; Bourgoing, *Nouveau Voyage en Espagne;*

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* The case of the famous heresiarch John Huss, in 1415, was conducted in the same manner. The Council of Constance, not having been able, by remonstrances and exhortations, to overcome his obstinacy and bring him to a retraction of his errors, handed him over to the civil power, without however soliciting his punishment. The secular court was not so indulgent: the emperor Sigismund thought it his duty to punish the man who, besides repeatedly infringing the conditions of the safe-conduct he had received, every where preached seditious doctrines; accordingly, John Huss was placed under the custody of the magistrate of Constance, who, following the jurisprudence of the age with regard to such trespasses, consigned him to the flames.

and *Journal de l'Empire*, 1805). Again, these abuses, if they ever existed, might be ascribed to the civil, but not to the ecclesiastical power, as is well explained by Count de Maistre in his two first letters on the Spanish Inquisition; much less could they be imputed to the Catholic church at large, of which the church of Spain is but a portion, or to the Roman See in particular, since the Inquisition at Rome never once led to capital punishment, and always displayed such moderation, indulgence and meekness, as to astonish the French infidels themselves *(Encyclop. art. Inquisition)*.

With regard to the awful and terrible forms which the Inquisition is said to have adopted, the charge may be partly admitted without furnishing any ground for invective; nor is it at all surprising that a tribunal should make an exterior show of rigor, the better to strike the minds of the people, and the more surely to prevent the perpetration of crime. It is however certain that, on this point also, there have been many exaggerations and slanderous reports. Thus, as Count de Maistre observes, *lett.* II., it is by no means true that the most trifling charge was sufficient to cause a man to be arrested; that the accused remained unacquainted with the reasons of his confinement, and was not allowed the privilege of a lawyer to defend his cause. The punishment of burning, too, far from being, as is commonly supposed, the ordinary one to which the convicted persons were condemned, was, on the contrary, very seldom employed, and by the civil power only, against such enormous crimes, sacrilege, apostacy, and the like, as were not more mildly treated by the other European nations. Faults of a less grievous nature were punished merely by exile or imprisonment, sentence of death being very rare, especially in latter times, when, as well natives as foreigners, who did not attempt to disturb religious or social order, could live with as much tranquillity and security in Spain as in any other country.

When the Spaniards are reproached with the rigors, real or pretended, of this famous tribunal, their answer is, that, by punishing a few obstinate individuals, it saved their monarchy from the awful disturbances and civil wars which desolated Switzerland, Germany, Belgium, France, etc. in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and did not, after all, cause so much blood to flow in all their dominions together, as the Calvinian reformation did in the single kingdom of France.

NOTE C.—PAGE 169.

ON THE BULL OF ALEXANDER VI, CALLED THE BULL OF PARTITION.

"WRITERS," says Dr. Lingard, "have not always sufficiently appreciated the benefits which mankind derived from the pacific influence of the Roman Pontiffs. In an age which valued no merit but that of arms, Europe would have been plunged in perpetual war, had not Pope after

Pope labored incessantly for the preservation or restoration of peace. They rebuked the passions, and checked the extravagant pretensions of sovereigns: their character, as the common fathers of Christians, gave to their representatives a weight which no other mediators could claim: and their legates spared neither journey nor fatigue to reconcile the jarring interests of courts, and interpose the olive of peace between the swords of contending armies" *(Histor. of Engl. vol.* IV. *p.* 80*)*.

These general remarks on the happy influence exercised at different times by the Sovereign Pontiffs, are particularly applicable to the conduct of Pope Alexander VI, with regard to the Spanish and Portuguese sovereigns. He had to settle between them, by a solemn decision, the respective boundaries of their foreign possessions, and, by so doing, prevent the endless and sanguinary contests that might have otherwise followed; this the Pontiff did by issuing the famous bull *Inter cætera;* he, at the same time improved the opportunity of benefiting the natives of the newly discovered countries, by requiring of their conquerors that they should procure for them religious and Christian instruction. Had he refused to listen to the appeal of the interested parties, he might indeed have removed the danger of being charged with entertaining ambitious views, but would he not have incurred the guilt of unjustifiable want of zeal and care, both to prevent the effusion of human blood, and to promote the advantage of the defenceless Indians? For, it should ever be remembered that the kings of Spain and Portugal would, in any hypothesis, have taken and kept possession of the lands lately descried by their navigators, this having been their full determination from the beginning; hence, there would have existed, on one side, a continued subject of quarrels between the two nations for the determination of their foreign limits, and, on the other, there would have been no condition imposed on them to better the fate of the Indians. The decision therefore of Alexander VI, was not only conducive to the preservation of peace among the conquerors, but highly advantageous to the vanquished themselves; and it was not the fault of that Pontiff, if the conditions prescribed by him did not afterwards receive their full accomplishment.

"Ferdinand," says the elegant historian of Columbus, "had dispatched ambassadors to the Court of Rome, announcing the new discovery as an extraordinary triumph of the faith......At least as politic as he was pious, he insinuated a hint at the same time, by which the Pope might perceive that *he was determined, at all events, to maintain his important acquisitions.* His ambassadors were instructed to state that, in the opinion of many learned men, these newly discovered lands, *having been taken possession of by the Catholic Sovereigns*, their title to the same did not require the papal sanction; still, as pious princes obedient to the holy chair, they supplicated His Holiness to issue a bull, making a concession of them, and of such others as might be discovered, to the crown of Castile" (Irving's *Columbus*, *b.* V. *ch.* VIII).

From this, it manifestly appears that the Spanish Sovereigns had not depended upon the grant of the pope, to take possession of the West-Indies. "The question," says a learned critic (Bergier, art. *Démarcation*) "was not to decide whether their conquests, and those of the King of Portugal, were lawful or not, but to remove, by the fixation of their limits, the evils of war which would have visited the European discoverers, without rendering the fate of the Indians better." Hence, it is useless to ask what right the pontiff had to give lands and countries which did not belong to him; since his solemn award, although it seems to express a real grant, was rather a measure tending to prevent bloody quarrels between two jealous and powerful monarchs. To act the part of an authoritative arbitrator, does not require to have jurisdiction over the object of the debate, but over the contending parties; especially, if they themselves have referred the case to their common acknowledged superior, and have asked his decision.

Instead then of inveighing against the bull of Alexander VI, it would be better, as Feller and Count de Maistre observe, to regret that the time has passed when a single word from the Roman Pontiff was sufficient to maintain peace among kings and nations, and when his impartial voice and universally revered influence easily removed the danger of obstinate dissensions and sanguinary conflicts.

NOTE D.—PAGE 182.

ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE ROMAN CHURCH ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCIENCE.

AFFAIR OF GALILEO.—THE CALENDAR.

The Roman Church, as we have already noticed in several parts of this work, has rendered multiplied and signal services to the arts, sciences, and belles lettres. Still, it is often said that she has, within the last ages, rather opposed their improvement; and were we to believe certain authors in their poetical, astronomical, and geographical descriptions, the very land and city in which there has always been found, to the present day, a greater share of true taste and solid learning than any where else, should be considered a half barbarous and hardly civilized region. The principal fact adduced to support this unjust charge, is the affair of Galileo, whom a multitude of writers represent as having been persecuted on account of his astronomical discoveries, and condemned by the Roman inquisitors merely for teaching, according to the opinion of Copernicus, the true system of the world. But it is now well proved, from the letters of Guichardin and of Marquis Nicolini, both of them disciples, friends and protectors of Galileo, from the letters and writings of Galileo himself, that, for a long time, the public has been grossly imposed upon with respect to this point of history.

This celebrated man was not arraigned as an astronomer, but as a bad theologian, and for having pretended to impute to the Bible dogmas of his own invention. His great discoveries, it is true, provoked envy against him; but his pretension to prove the Copernican system from the Bible was the real cause of his being summoned before the inquisitors at Rome; and the restlessness of his mind, the only source of the troubles which he underwent on that account.

In his first journeys to Rome (1611, etc.), Galileo found only admirers among the cardinals and other distinguished personages. The Pope himself granted him a favorable audience, and Cardinal Bellarmine merely forbade him, in the name of His Holiness, to blend in future the Bible with his astronomical systems. Other learned prelates equally pointed out to him the course of prudence to be observed by him on this point; but his obstinacy and vanity did not permit him to follow their advice.

Some years after, he published his 'Dialogues and Memoirs,' in which he again took upon himself to raise the system of the rotation of the earth to the dignity of a dogmatical tenet. Being summoned before the tribunals of Rome, the lodging assigned to him in that city, was not a gloomy prison, not a frightful dungeon, but the palace of Tuscany, and, for eighteen days, the apartments of the attorney-general, where he had every facility to take exercise and carry on his correspondence. During the trial, the main object of his answers was not the scientific view of the question, since he had been allowed to defend his system as an astronomical hypothesis, but its pretended association with the Bible. After having received his sentence and made his recantation, Galileo obtained leave to revisit his native country, and, far from being persecuted, was dismissed with new marks of esteem for his talents and of regard for his person.

For these interesting documents respecting the affair of Galileo, we are indebted to the researches of an impartial Protestant, Mr. Mallet Du Pan of Geneva, who wrote a dissertation on the subject, in the *Mercure de France*, 17 *Juillet* 1784, *no.* 291,—see Béraut-Bercastel, *Histoire de l'Eglise*, ad ann. 1634; and Bergier, *Theological Dictionary, art. Monde, and Sciences.*

The Roman church, far from impeding the progress of astronomy or of other sciences, on this or any other occasion, has on the contrary rendered, even in that respect, the most undeniable and signal services. We allude chiefly to the reformation of the calendar, an event which took place under Pope Gregory XIII, some years before the time of Galileo and which is well deserving of notice.

By *Calendar* is meant a certain distribution of time adapted to religious and civil purposes, and pointing out the order and succession of the days, weeks, months and festivals of the year. All civilized nations have ever felt the necessity of having such a regular distribution of time; but it required a long series of ages, a deep study of astronomy, and innumerable calculations, to contrive a good and exact calendar.

In former times, the year was believed to be eleven minutes longer than it is in reality. This difference, though apparently trifling, had become, by being repeated from year to year during the course of many centuries, so very sensible and material, that, in the year 1582, the vernal equinox fell on the eleventh of March, whereas the calendar marked it on the twenty-first of the same month; a day which had been assigned to it by the astronomers of Alexandria, in 325. The consequence was, that festivals were no longer celebrated in their proper time; and Easter, in particular, which depends on the full moon of March, would, in the course of ages, have been successively found in Summer, Autumn and Winter.

To remedy this confusion, Gregory XIII suppressed at once from the year 1582 ten entire days (those between the 4th and 15th of October), by which the real equinox was in advance of the equinox of the calendar; thus making them again coincide, and restoring all Christian festivals to their proper epoch throughout the year. Moreover, measures and precautions, suggested by skilful mathematicians and astronomers, were taken to prevent the like confusion in future, and the whole work being completed, received the solemn sanction of the Pope, in his bull of the same year, 1582.

These corrections in the calendar were successively adopted by nearly all Christian nations, even those separated from the See of Rome; v. g., by the English, in 1752; by the Swedes, in 1753; by the German States, in 1776. The Russians are the only civilized people in Europe, who have hitherto refused to admit the important improvement, and still adhere to the old style; the consequence of which is that they are now, in their computation of the year, twelve or thirteen days behind the real time; thus preferring, as a judicious author pointedly remarks, rather to be at variance with the heavens and the stars, than to agree with the Roman Pontiff.

NOTE E.—PAGE 224.

ON THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY.

NOTHING perhaps is more common, and yet nothing can be more unjust, than to take advantage of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day, to inveigh against the Catholic community and the Catholic principles, as if the awful deed had proceeded from their influence. If we consult the authentic and contemporary documents collected and adduced by those persons who have made a deep and impartial study of the whole transaction, (v. g. Caveirac, *Dissert. sur la St. Barthélemi;*—Lingard, VIII, Note T.;—Daniel, *Hist. de France*, ad ann. 1572), we shall find that religion had nothing to do with it, except to check its course as much as possible, and to weep over the devoted victims of the Massacre; that the whole affair was merely the effect of political resentment and of a sudden ebullition of anger; in fine, that a much smaller number of persons perished on the occasion than is commonly believed.

The series and close connexion of the events immediately preceding the Massacre, are sufficient to show that it originated in the animosity of the French court against the Protestant party, and was dictated by a violent desire of revenge. The mind of the young king, Charles IX, had been frequently harassed and exasperated by the repeated attacks of the Huguenots against his authority, and by the report of the many cruelties which they had committed throughout the kingdom during the last civil wars. Notwithstanding these causes of provocation, he would not have adopted the dreadful measure, had it not been for the positive assertion of his mother and chief counsellors, that he could no longer escape the plots of that party, without putting to death or in confinement its chief leaders, and that, were he to wait till next morning, his most faithful officers, his family, perhaps himself, would be sacrificed to their vengeance. The king then gave his consent to the projected massacre; the time was appointed; and the execution took place during a considerable part of the following day, the twenty-fourth of August, 1572.

Thus, the odious deed was not the result of a long premeditated and general plot, but the effect of a sudden fit of anger and revenge; it was, moreover, projected against the leaders only of the Huguenot party, and intended to have taken place only in Paris. If the example of the capital was followed in many other cities, v. g., Lyons, Rouen, Toulouse, Bourdeaux, etc., this was owing chiefly to the violent excitement which the conduct and cruelties of the Calvinists, during the preceding insurrections, had produced in the minds of the Catholics. Far from sending orders to the provinces against Protestants, Charles IX, on the contrary, both in writing and by word of mouth, frequently expressed his intention that the bloody scene should not be repeated, nor extended beyond the limits of Paris. And indeed, the great difference of the epochs at which the massacres were committed in the cities just mentioned, also shows that they ought to be attributed rather to sudden ebullitions of popular vengeance, than to any previously concerted and general plan. Every one may see the detailed proofs of these assertions in the two first authors above mentioned.

Of the number of victims in all these towns, including the capital, it is impossible to speak with certainty. Among the Huguenot writers, some reckon seventy thousand; others, thirty or twenty or fifteen thousand; but all these amounts are surely exaggerated. "The reformed martyrologist adopted a measure of ascertaining the real number, which may enable us to form a probable conjecture. He procured from the ministers in the different towns where the massacres had taken place, lists of the names of the persons who had suffered, or were supposed to have suffered. He published the result in 1582; and the reader will be surprised to learn that in all France he could discover the names of no more than seven hundred and eighty-six persons. Perhaps, if we double that number, we shall not be far from the real amount."

Above all, it is certain that religion had nothing to do with the Massacre, whether as a motive or an encouragement. In the contriving of the wretched scheme, the passions of the French court, jealousy, animosity, revenge, were the real and only cause; and the pretence was a supposed conspiracy of the Protestant leaders against the king, his servants and his family. No clergymen were consulted about the adoption of the awful measure, and, when they heard of it after its execution, far from obtaining their approbation, it rather excited in their bosoms feelings of horror for the deed, and of commiseration for its victims. The only share which bishops, priests and monks took in it, was to save as many as they could of the Protestants, who, in many towns, v. g., Lisieux, Toulouse, Lyons, Bourdeaux, had taken refuge in their hospitable dwellings.

It is objected that Pope Gregory XIII publicly returned thanks to God on that occasion;—but what was the real object of this rejoicing? Charles IX, in order to palliate the shame of his murderous edict against the Parisian Huguenots, wrote to every court in Europe, that, having just detected their horrid plots against his authority and person, he had been fortunate enough to escape from the imminent danger, by putting the conspirators to death without delay. The Pope then, under that impression, rejoiced, not for the death of the supposed traitors, whose rigorous punishment he on the contrary deplored, but for the preservation of the French monarch and of his kingdom from utter ruin: exactly, as in a case of war and of a signal victory against invaders, public rejoicings would take place, and every sensible person would willingly share in them, not indeed at the blood shed in battle, but at the advantages gained by his country; and who could dare to find a fault in such conduct?

NOTE F.—PAGE 248.

ON THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES.

Before attempting to present a vindication of this famous Revocation, we will quote the words in which it is recorded by Hume, in the eighth volume of his History. "Louis XIV," says he, "having long harassed and molested the Protestants, at last entirely revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had been enacted by Henry IV for securing them the free exercise of their religion; which had been declared irrevocable; and which, during the experience of near a century, had been attended with no sensible inconvenience. All the iniquities inseparable from persecution were exercised against those unhappy religionists; who became obstinate in proportion to the oppressions which they suffered, and either covered under a feigned conversion a more violent abhorrence for the Catholic communion, or sought among foreign nations for that liberty of which they were bereaved in their native country. Above half a million of the most useful and industrious subjects deserted France, and exported, together with immense sums of money, those arts and manufactures which had chiefly tended to enrich that kingdom. They propagated every where the most tragical accounts of the tyranny exercised against them, and revived among the Protestants all that resentment against the bloody and persecuting spirit of popery, to which so many incidents in all ages had given too much foundation."

Such is, without the change of a single word, the language of Hume concerning the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. That it is, in most points, and especially in the conclusion, the language of virulence, untruth and calumny, will appear manifest from the bare recital, in this, and the following note, of the facts connected with the important subject now before us, and of such notorious facts, too, as the most envious criticism cannot rationally deny.

Previously to the reign of Louis XIV, the Huguenots, by dint of threats and violence had extorted from the French Kings, particularly from Henry IV in 1598, innumerable privileges, and a sort of separate government in the very heart of the kingdom. Their repeated insurrections under Louis XIII were checked, and their military forces annihilated by the genius of Richelieu; still they continued, even under this powerful minister, to possess a legal existence, and to enjoy the free exercise of their religion. Unfortunately, their spirit of rancor and animosity always continued the same; they constantly manifested the most shameful opposition to the interests of their own country, repeatedly endeavored to overturn her constitution and government, always favored her foreign foes, as was manifest from their authentic acts and writings, and carried so far their hostile designs, as to open, as far as they were able, her frontiers to the Germans and the Dutch, and her maritime towns, Le Havre and La Rochelle, to the English, the greatest enemies of France; in a word, so multiplied were their infractions of several articles of the Edict of Nantes, that it required no fewer than two hundred decrees of various courts to check these new encroachments, as may be seen in the work of Abbé Caveirac on this subject, p. 195—246, and LXI—LXIII of the notes.

Moreover, the bloody civil wars formerly excited by the Huguenots, were not yet forgotten, and the fresh remembrance of past evils inclined the nation to adopt measures calculated to prevent their repetition. "I do not speak," says the illustrious pupil of Fenelon, the Duke of Burgundy, in his memoirs, "of the calamities produced by the new doctrines in Germany, England, Scotland, Ireland, etc. I speak of France only. Nor shall I enumerate one by one, the evils of which it was the theatre, and which are recorded in so many authentic documents; the secret assemblies; the leagues formed with foreign enemies; the attempts against the government; the seditious threats, open revolts, conspiracies, and bloody wars; the plundering and sacking of towns; the deliberate massacres, and atrocious sacrileges; suffice it to say, that, from Francis I to Louis XIV, during seven successive reigns, all these evils and many others, with more or less violence, desolated the French monarchy. This is a point of history which, although it may be variously related, can neither be denied nor called in question; and it is from this capital point that we should start in the political examination of this grand affair."

Under the fresh recollection of so many trespasses and obnoxious deeds of the Huguenots, an intimate persuasion, founded on the natural rights of nations and the security of governments, had pervaded all classes of people, that the king was justifiable in adopting vigorous measures for the purpose of checking this ill-affected portion of his subjects. It was the general opinion, that the Edict of Nantes, both from its nature and on account of its numerous violations by the very party whom it favored, might be revoked; since the good and tranquillity of the state called for its revocation. So little doubt did there exist concerning this right of repeal, that even Arnauld, a Jansenist, and Grotius, a Protestant, openly acknowledged it in their writings;* nor indeed could it be denied without unjust partiality, since there was not, at this period, a single Protestant government in Europe which, notwithstanding much more sacred ties or contracts, did not act more severely against their peaceful Catholic subjects, than the French court prepared to do against the restless and ever disaffected Huguenots.

Moved by these considerations, the ministry under Louis XIV employed itself in gradually undermining their party, and taking away from them the power and opportunities of exciting new disturbances in France; still nothing appeared to threaten the entire abolition of their privileges, when, alarming symptoms of insurrection manifested by them throughout the southern and western provinces, caused it to become a matter of serious debate in the council of the king. The proposed measure passed by the unanimous vote of the counsellors and ministers; the Edict of Nantes was revoked; and, as the factious and hostile spirit of the Huguenot ministers was too well known to be safely tolerated, such *of their number* as refused to abjure their tenets within the space of two months, were commanded to quit the kingdom. As to the other Protestants, they were not only allowed, but even encouraged to remain in

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* The following are the words of the latter: "Nôrint illi, qui Reformatorum sibi imponunt vocabulum, non esse illa fœdera, sed regum edicta, ob publicam facta utilitatem, et *revocabilia*, si aliud regibus publica utilitas suaserit.—*Rivetianì apologetici discussio*, p. 22.

France, where they might freely carry on their business and commerce as before, and enjoy their property and their civil rights under the protection of the law, "without being troubled and vexed on account of their religion." These are the very terms of the repealing statute.

It is, therefore, a gross inaccuracy to assert or suppose that the French Huguenots were promiscuously condemned to banishment, or doomed to oppression and all the iniquities inseparable from persecution in their native country. Many of them, it is true, preferred to follow their ministers into exile; but this was a mere effect of their own choice, which the government never intended nor encouraged. It is true also that, in several places, acts of rigor, owing to unforeseen incidents, were exercised against them; but this happened only in the places where the religionists, misunderstanding the moderate views of their sovereign, provoked his justice by their excesses and revolts. As to the acts of violence which some individuals occasionally recommended or practised, they were entirely repugnant both to the character and intentions of the monarch, who bitterly complained of this criminal abuse of his authority.

He not only published new enactments to check these disorders, but also endeavored to remove from the attendance of Protestants at religious instructions even the appearance of constraint; following in this the advice of Bossuet, Fenelon, and other distinguished persons of the clergy, as Cardinal de Bausset relates in the lives of these two illustrious bishops. Even before this, so remote were the ideas of the King from any thing like persecution, that in a letter to the intendants of the provinces he said in express terms, that he recommended to them *above all* to treat the Protestants with mildness, *je vous recommande surtout de ménager avec douceur les esprits de ceux de ladite religion;* and, when information was given him that two of these governors had followed a different course, he severely reprimanded one, and recalled the other.

But did not Louis XIV at least commit a great political fault, or, as some call it, *a suicidal act* against France, by giving occasion to so many industrious and useful subjects to leave the kingdom?—So indeed it seems to several persons, but on what grounds does not appear. Even supposing the commercial and pecuniary disadvantage for some parts of France to have been as great as is commonly supposed, Louis XIV may have justly considered it a mere trifle, when weighed in the balance against the security and tranquillity of the whole kingdom. After all, there has evidently been much exaggeration in estimating the loss which France may have suffered on that occasion. Whatever were the complaints issued by some interested individuals, time and experience showed that arts, manufactures and trade had scarcely suffered any sensible detriment; or it was, at least, quickly repaired, since from nearly that period, commerce and industry became more and more flourishing in France, and no later than two years after the Edict of Revocation, the revenues of the crown were augmented. Nor is it at all true that the French refugees exported much money; the richest among them had remained in France, and those who freely chose to emigrate were mostly workmen and laborers, rather requiring support from the countries which received them, than capable of enriching their benefactors, as their own historians confess; (apud Caveirac, p. 93—97). Nor, in fine, did they materially contribute, except perhaps in Prussia, to the splendor of foreign manufactures, which were flourishing and prosperous before their arrival.

As to the number of the emigrants, it is difficult to ascertain it, though we may be assured that there is another gross exaggeration in the amount of *above half a million* asserted by Hume. Larrey and Benoit, two Protestant authors, admit it to have been of about two hundred thousand persons; but several critics think that it ought to be reduced, upon fair calculation, to one-fourth or at least one-third of that amount. Among others, the Duke of Burgundy, whose candor and sincerity, as well as means of research, cannot be doubted, assures us that the French refugees were not more than sixty-eight thousand in all; a number less than was carried off by a single civil war.

So little injury was thought at the time to result to France from the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, that Louis XIV received innumerable congratulations on this account. Both subjects and foreigners appeared more surprised at the rapid execution of the measure, than at the measure itself; even the famous Bayle proved to his fellow exiles that it was their own conduct that had forced the king to revoke their privileges, and that, after all, the laws enacted in most Protestant countries against Catholics were more stern and rigorous than any published by Catholic princes against Protestants, (*Avis aux Réfugiés*, etc). If then the Huguenots filled the world with their invectives against the French government, no reasonable man will refuse to ascribe their conduct rather to the dictate of passion, than to their love of truth and justice. For, who does not know that the guilty commonly complain of the tribunal by which they were condemned? And who will ever consider as worthy of credit the historian who, lending an attentive ear to these complaints and invectives of one party, sets aside the victorious defence and the unexceptionable reasons of the other?

NOTE G.—PAGE 318.

ON RELIGIOUS PERSECUTION.

To all persons ever so little acquainted with the history of the last ages, it must be matter of the greatest surprise to see the charge of *bloody and persecuting spirit* so incessantly urged against the Catholic Church by those against whom it may be so easily and so victoriously retorted. Without again mentioning the oppressive conduct of the late

Prussian government, the rigor of the former penal laws of England, etc., what violence and persecution did not the Catholics of the sixteenth century suffer in Denmark, Sweden and Scotland, although *theirs* was the ancient and established faith, whilst the doctrines of their persecutors were novelties both in Church and state! What cruelties were not committed against them in different parts of Germany, where it may be said that streams of blood marked the progress of the reformed religion;—in Holland, where the sanguinary Vandermerk slaughtered more unoffending Catholic priests and peasants in the year 1572, than the severe Duke of Alva executed Protestant insurgents during his whole government; —in France, where the fury of the Huguenots, besides many particular atrocities, burnt nine hundred towns and villages in the province of Dauphiné alone, and excited nine or ten civil wars, which cost the lives of more than two millions of men; and that, too, upon avowed principle, and according to the maxims laid down by the very authors of the reformation, Luther, Calvin, Beza, etc.

On the contrary, we have proved, in different Notes, that neither the pastors, nor the tenets and principles of the Catholic Church, had any share in the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, in the Gun-powder Plot, in the abuses which may have accidentally taken place in the Spanish Inquisition, or in the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Sometimes, indeed, when there have existed sectarians, like the Albigenses, implacable disturbers of the public peace, and enemies of all social and religious order, the Church exhorted and requested the civil power to repress their excesses; but this surely cannot, without a manifest abuse of language, be termed *persecution;* otherwise we ought to call by the same name all civil laws enacted against robbers and murderers. As to the acts of real persecution, cruelty and violence of which some Catholics may have occasionally been guilty, they not only never met with any kind of encouragement or approbation from her; but she rather endeavored, as much as lay in her power, to prevent or check those ebullitions of individual and popular fury; and, however zealous to propagate the Christian faith, always inculcated that principle, which has even become a part of the Canon Law, that no one is to be compelled to embrace it by force. That this has been constantly, from the primitive ages down to the present time, her true spirit and the rule of her conduct, may be easily shown from a great variety of facts and testimonies, even confining ourselves to such as are connected with the events and personages mentioned in the course of this history.

The first Christian emperor, Constantine the Great, was far from retaliating upon the heathens the rigor which his predecessors had exercised against the Christians. However great was his zeal for the diffusion of the true religion, in which he had been instructed by Catholic bishops, he did not so much as attempt to compel, but contented himself with mildly exhorting his subjects to embrace it, and even gave orders that no one should be in the least annoyed on account of his religion. See *his life* by Eusebius, *b.* II. *ch.* 47, 48, etc.

Another Christian emperor, Honorius, having in 410 passed very severe edicts to repress the horrid excesses and cruelties of the Donatists in Africa, St. Augustine and other orthodox prelates exerted all their influence to mitigate in favor of these wretched people the severity of the law, and to procure their conversion by instructions and conferences, rather than let their bodies perish by capital punishment. We learn from Possidius, the disciple and friend of St. Augustine, in the life of this holy doctor, that they had the satisfaction to succeed in their charitable undertaking.

Pope St. Leo the Great, who lived at a time when the Church was attacked by very dangerous heretics, speaking of the Manicheans, the worst of all, says that "the ecclesiastical lenity was content, even in this case, with the sacerdotal judgment, and avoided all sanguinary punishments." A remarkable fact had recently proved the truth of his assertion. It was against a branch of these sectarians, the Priscillians, that the secular arm first exerted its severity, at Triers under the emperor Maximus, about the year 385. This event served to show how adverse the Catholic Church is to the bloody spirit of persecution: Pope St. Siricius, and the most holy prelates of the West, blamed the rigor that had been exercised against the Priscillians, and the two bishops Ithacius and Idacius, who had obtained their condemnation in a civil court, were themselves condemned for that very reason in the councils of Milan (A. D. 390) and of Turin (401).

When Ethelbert, King of Kent, was converted to the true religion by the apostle of England, St. Austin, he had a great desire that all his subjects should like him embrace Christianity; but, as venerable Bede relates, he did not compel any one to do so, because *he had learned from the Roman missionaries* that the service of Christ ought to be voluntary. —Pope St. Gregory the Great, by whom these holy missionaries were sent to England, evinced on many other occasions his firm adherence to this mild spirit of Christianity. Writing to the bishop of Terracina, who had used some violence against the Jews, he said: "It is by mildness and exhortations, not by threats and terror, that the infidels must be induced to become Christians;" and again, to a patriarch of Constantinople: "This is indeed a very strange way of preaching, which enforces the true faith by ill-treatment!" Such were the principles and the constant doctrine of that holy pontiff.

St. Bernard, abbot of Clairvaux and the brightest ornament of his age, having learned that a fanatical preacher exhorted the people to murder the Jews as enemies of Christianity, rose against him with all the force of his eloquence, and rescued these devoted victims from the danger which threatened them. Pope Clement VI, in a similar crisis of popular fury, hastened to forbid, even under penalty of excommunication, any violence to be offered to them either in their persons or in their property; and it is well known in general that the Jews never enjoyed greater protection than under the Roman Pontiffs; so much so, that the city of Rome, where they occupy a separate quarter, with mere precautions of police, has been proverbially called *the Paradise of the Jews.*

Robertson, in his *History of America*, renders full justice to the zeal and charity of the Spanish ecclesiastics in favor of the Indians of San Domingo, at the time when these unhappy people were harshly treated by their conquerors. "The missionaries," says he, "in conformity to the mild spirit of that religion which they were employed to publish, early remonstrated against *this conduct.*" Besides the Dominican fathers, and the zealous Bartholomew Las Casas whose exertions in that noble cause are so justly renowned, the monks of St. Jerome also "neglected no circumstance that tended to mitigate the rigor of the yoke; and by their authority, their example and their exhortations, they labored to inspire their countrymen with sentiments of equity and gentleness towards the Indians." (*b.* III, *ad ann.* 1517).

In the fifth book of his work, the same historian relates that Cortez having resolved, in his march towards Mexico, to destroy by open force the altars and the idols of the Tlascalans, was checked in his inconsiderate design by Father Olmedo, a chaplain to the expedition. This venerable man "represented that religion was not to be propagated by the sword, or infidels to be converted by violence; that other weapons were to be employed in this ministry, namely, patient instruction and pious example. . . . The remonstrances of an ecclesiastic no less respectable for wisdom than virtue, had their proper weight with Cortez. He left the Tlascalans in the undisturbed exercise of their own rites, requiring only that they should desist from their horrid practice of offering human victims in sacrifice."

We have already noticed the charity and mildness displayed by the French clergy in favor of Protestants, at the time of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. We may now make a similar remark concerning the penal statute passed, under the reign of Queen Mary, against her Protestant subjects, in consequence of the provocations which she had often experienced from their inordinate zeal. Motives of state policy actuated, indeed, the abettors of that rigorous measure; but far from being supported by any argument from ecclesiastical authority, it was on the contrary powerfully opposed by Cardinal Pole in the cabinet council, and even by King Philip's chaplain from the pulpit. When likewise, Emmanuel, king of Portugal, ordered some violent measures to be resorted to, apparently for the good of religion, the celebrated Jesuit and historian Mariana observed, that the edict was most repugnant to the laws and statutes of the Christian Church, *decretum à legibus et institutis Christianis abhorrens maximè.*

It was from these sacred statutes and laws, still more than from his own benevolent heart, that Fenelon drew the following beautiful maxims and counsels which he addressed to the son of King James II, called the *Pretender:* "Above all, never force your subjects to change their religion. No human power can reach the impenetrable recess of the free will of the heart. Violence can never persuade men; it serves only to make hypocrites. . . . . Grant civil liberty to all, not in approving every thing as good, nor regarding every thing as indifferent, but in tolerating with patience whatever Almighty God tolerates, and endeavoring to convert men by mild persuasion." "Sur toutes choses, ne forcez jamais vos sujets à changer de religion. Nulle puissance humaine ne peut forcer le retranchement impénétrable de la liberté du cœur. La force ne peut jamais persuader les hommes; elle ne fait que des hypocrites. . . . . Accordez à tous la tolérance civile, non en approuvant tout comme indifférent, mais en souffrant avec patience tout ce que Dieu souffre, et en tâchant de ramener les hommes par une douce persuasion." (*Vie de Fénélon, par* Ramsay, *p.* 176; or by Cardinal Bausset, *vol.* III. *p.* 208).

The same benevolent and mild spirit of Catholicity has been also strikingly displayed on this side of the Atlantic. To prove this, we need merely refer to the history of the settlers of Maryland, the only one of the early British colonies that was founded by a body of Catholics. "Its history," says Bancroft (*vol.* I, *p.* 268), "is the history of benevolence, gratitude, and toleration. . . . . The Roman Catholics, who were oppressed by the laws of England, were sure to find a peaceful asylum in the quiet harbors of the Chesapeake; and there, too, Protestants were sheltered against Protestant intolerance." (See also Wilson, *Amer. Revol. ch.* II, *p.* 21). Whilst the Episcopalians of Virginia would suffer no other form of worship than their own; whilst the Puritans of New England punished with exile, fines, or tortures, the dissenters from their creed, the Catholics of Maryland alone, instead of imitating the example, invited the sufferers to come among them, and kindly received into their hospitable colony the victims of intolerance from the other settlements.

Nor has the American Catholic of the present day degenerated from the maxims of his ancestors. However ready to defend his just rights against all illegal attacks and actual violence, he is equally disposed never to attempt the least unjust aggression against persons of a different creed. How strongly soever attached to his faith, it is only by a fair and mild exposition of his doctrines that he seeks to vindicate them; being satisfied that the true religion neither needs nor requires to be defended or promoted by plots and *associations*, riots and conflagrations, misrepresentation and calumny; he would be ashamed to use, and he is above all, careful not to employ such unworthy weapons for the support of so sacred a cause.

How falsely, then, do the enemies of the Catholic Church ascribe to her *a bloody and persecuting spirit*, than which nothing is more contrary to her constant maxims and conduct! Is it not rather evident that the same society to which we are indebted for the preservation of religion, civilization, literature and learning; for the complete revival of sciences and belles-lettres in the age of Leo X, and their greatest splendor in the age of Louis XIV; for the most successful exertions in repelling the invasion of barbarians and saving the liberty of our European ancestors; for the most useful institutions; for the most important discoveries; etc., enjoys also the honor of having always maintained the true spirit of Christianity upon earth, and ever practised, with unshaken adherence to the deposit of faith, that toleration and mildness towards individuals, that universal benevolence and charity so much recommended in the Gospel? Wonderful Providence of God towards mankind in the institution of his Church, that, whilst she seems to have been established only to promote our spiritual and eternal welfare, she has moreover been rendered so zealously active and so vitally instrumental in procuring even our temporal happiness!

TABLES

OF

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

N. B. THE DATES MARK THE BEGINNING OF EACH REIGN.

TABLE I.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF CONSTANTINOPLE.	KINGS OF JERUSALEM.
	Alexius Comnenus.	
1099	....	Godfrey of Bouillon.
1110	....	Baldwin I.
1118	John Comnenus.	Baldwin II.
1131	....	Foulques of Anjou.
1142	....	Baldwin III.
1143	Manuel Comnenus.	
1162	....	Almeric or Amaury.
1173	....	Baldwin IV.
1180	Alexius II.	
1183	Andronic I.	
1185	Isaac l' Ange...............	Baldwin V.
1186	....	Guy of Lusignan.
1195	Alexius III.	
1203	Isaac and Alexius IV l' Ange.	*Fall of the kingdom of Jerusalem.*
1204	Alexius V Ducas, or Murzuphlis.	
	Constantinople taken by the Latins.	*Greek emperors at Nice.*
1204	Baldwin I..................	Theodorus Lascaris I.
1206	Henry.	
1206	Peter de Courtenay.	
1219	Robert de Courtenay.	
1222	....	John Ducas Vatace.
1228	John of Brienne. Baldwin II.	
1255	....	Theodorus Lascaris II
1259	....	John Lascaris. Michael Paleologus.
	Constantinople recovered by the Greeks.	
1261	Michael Paleologus.	
1282	Andronic II.	

TABLE II.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF GERMANY.	KINGS OF ENGLAND.	KINGS OF FRANCE.	KINGS OF SPAIN.
	House of Franconia.	*Norman dynasty.*	*Capetian dynasty.*	*House of Bigore.*
1100	....	Henry I.		
1106	Henry V.			
1108	....	....	Louis VI, the Big.	
1109	....	....	....	Alfonso VII.
1125	Lathaire II, the Saxon.	*House of Blois.*		*House of Burgundy.*
1126	....	....	....	Alfonso VIII.
1135	....	Stephen.		
1137	....	....	Louis VII, the younger.	
1138	Conrad III. *House of Suabia*	*Plantagenets undivided.*		
1152	Frederic I, Barbarossa.			
1154	....	Henry II.		
1157	....	....	....	Sanchez III and Ferdinand II.
1158	....	....	....	Alfonso IX.
1180	....	....	Philip II, Augustus.	
1189	....	Richard I, Cœur de Lion.		
1190	Henry VI.			
1198	Philip. Otho IV.			
1199	....	John, Lackland.		
1214	....	....	....	Henry I.
1216	....	Henry III.		
1217	....	....	....	Ferdinand III (St.).
1218	Frederic II.			
1223	....	....	Louis VIII, Lion hearted.	
1226	....	....	Louis IX, or St. Louis.	
1250	Conrad IV. William of Holland.			
1252	....	....	....	Alfonso X, the Wise.
1256	*Interregnum. Anarchy.*			
1270	....	....	Philip III, the Bold.	
1272	....	Edward I.		
1273	Rodolph I of Hapsburg.			
1284	....	....	....	Sanchez IV.
1285	....	....	Philip IV, the Fair.	
1292	Adolph of Nassau.			
1295	....	....	....	Ferdinand IV.

TABLE III.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF CONSTANTINOPLE.	OTTOMAN SULTANS.
1300		Othman.
1326		Orcan.
1328	Andronic III.	
1341	John Cantacuzene and John Paleologus I.	
1360		Amurat I.
1389		Bajazet I, Ilderim.
1391	Manuel Paleologus.	
1402		Soliman I.
1406		Musa.
1413		Mahomet I.
1421		Amurat II.
1425	John Paleologus II.	
1448	Constantine Paleologus, or Dragazes.	
1451		Mahomet II.
	Fall of the Greek empire.	
1481		Bajazet II.
1512		Selim I.
1520		Soliman II, the Magnificent.
1566		Selim II.
1574		Amurat III.
1595		Mahomet III.
1603		Achmat I.
1617		Mustapha I.
1618		Osman I.
1623		Amurat IV.
1640		Ibrahim.
1648		Mahomet IV.
1687		Soliman III.

TABLE IV.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF GERMANY.	KINGS OF ENGLAND.	KINGS OF FRANCE.	KINGS OF SPAIN.
1298	Albert I of Austria.	*Plantagenets.*	*Capetians.*	*House of Burgundy.*
1307		Edward II.		
1308	Henry VII of Luxemburg			
1312				Alfonso XI.
1314	Frederic of Austria. Louis of Bavaria.		Louis X.	
1316			John I. Philip V.	
1322			Charles IV.	
1327		Edward III.	*House of Valois.*	
1328			Philip VI.	
	House of Luxemburg.			
1347	Charles IV.			
1350			John II.	Pedro the Cruel.
1364			Charles V, the Wise.	
1368				Henry II, Transtamare.
1377		Richard II.		
1378	Wenceslaus.	*House of Lancaster.*		
1379				Juan I.
1380			Charles VI.	
1390				Henry III.
1399		Henry IV.		
1400	Robert, Count Palatine.			
1406				Juan II.
1410	Sigismund.			
1413		Henry V.		
1422		Henry VI.	Charles VII.	
	House of Austria			
1438	Albert II.	*House of York.*		
1440	Frederic III.			
1454				Henry IV.
1461		Edward IV.	Louis XI.	
1474				Isabella and Ferdinand V. Castile and Arragon united.
1483		Edward V Richard III.	Charles VIII.	
		House of Tudor.	*Valois-Orléans.*	
1485		Henry VII.		
1493	Maximilian I.			
1498			Louis XII.	Philip I of Austria, and Ferdinand V of Arragon.
1504				
1509		Henry VIII.		

TABLE V.

A. D.	OTTOMAN SULTANS.	EMPERORS AND EMPRESSES OF RUSSIA.	KINGS OF PRUSSIA.	PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.
1689	....	Peter I, the Great.		
1691	Achmet II.			
1695	Mustapha II.			
1701	....	....	Frederic I.	
1702	Achmet III.			
1713	....	....	Frederic William I.	
1725	....	Catherine I.		
1727	....	Peter II.		
1730	Mahomet V, or Mahmoud I.	Anne.		
1740	....	Iwan..........	Frederic II, the Great.	
1741	....	Elizabeth.		
1754	Osman II.			
1757	Mustapha III.			
1762	....	Peter II--Catherine II the Great		
1774	Abdul-Hamid.			
1786	....	....	Frederic William II.	
1789	Selim III.......	....	....	Washington, first president.
1796	....	Paul.		
1797	....	....	Frederic William III.	John Adams.
1801	....	Alexander.....	....	Jefferson.
1807	Mustapha IV.			
1808	Mahmoud II.			
1809	....	....	....	Madison.
1817	....	....	....	Monroe.
1825	....	Nicholas......	....	John Quincy Adams.
1829	....	....	....	Jackson.
1837	....	....	....	Van-Buren.
1839	Abdul Medjid.			
1840	....	....	Frederic William IV.	
1841	....	....	....	Harrison–Tyler

TABLE VI.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF GERMANY.	KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.	KINGS OF FRANCE.	KINGS OF SPAIN.
	House of Austria continued.	*House of Tudor, continued.*	*Valois—Angouleme.*	*House of Austria*
1515			Francis I.	
1516				Charles I; same as Charles V in Germany.
1519	Charles V.			
1547		Edward VI.	Henry II.	
1553		Mary.		
1556	Ferdinand I.			Philip II.
1558		Elizabeth.		
1559			Francis II.	
1560			Charles IX.	
1564	Maximilian II.			
1574			Henry III.	
1576	Rodolph II.	*House of Stuart.*	*House of Bourbon.*	
1589			Henry IV, the Great.	
1598				Philip III.
1603		James I.		
1610			Louis XIII.	
1612	Matthias.			
1619	Ferdinand II.			
1621				Philip IV.
1625		Charles I.		
1637	Ferdinand III.			
1643			Louis XIV, the Great.	
1649		*Commonwealth.* Cromwell, protector.		
1658	Leopold I.			
1660		*Restoration.* Charles II.		
1665				Charles II.
1685		James II.—Revolution.		
1689		Mary and William III.		*House of Bourbon.*
1700				Philip V.
1702		Anne.		
1705	Joseph I.	*House of Hanover or Brunswick*		
1711	Charles VI.			
1714		George I.		
1715			Louis XV.	
1727		George II.		
1740	Charles VII of Bavaria.			

TABLE VI.—CONTINUED.

A. D.	EMPERORS OF GERMANY.	KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.	KINGS OF FRANCE.	KINGS OF SPAIN.
	House of Lorraine.	*House of Hanover or Brunswick*	*House of Bourbon.*	*House of Bourbon.*
1745	Francis I.			
1746	....	....	....	Ferdinand VI.
1759	....	....	....	Charles III.
1760	....	George III.		
1765	Joseph II.			
1774	....	....	Louis XVI.	
1788	....	....	....	Charles IV.
1790	Leopold II.	....	*Revolution.*	
1792	Francis II.	....	*Republic.*	
1793	....	....	Louis *XVII.*	
1799	....	....	Napoleon, *First Consul.*	
1804	*Austria.*	....	Napoleon, *Emperor.*	
1806	Francis.			
1808	....	....	....	*Forced abdicat'n Spain invaded.*
1814	....	....	Louis XVIII.	Ferdinand VII.
1820	....	George IV.		
1824	....	....	Charles X. *Branch of Orleans.*	
1830	....	William IV....	Louis Philip.	
1833	....	....	....	*Civil war and Revolutions.*
1835	Ferdinand.			
1837	....	Victoria.		

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

MEMORABLE EVENTS

AND

REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.

N. B The dates in the first column, denote the years in which the events happened;—those placed in the second column, mark the years in which the persons mentioned there, died.

PART V.

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1095	Council of Clermont—First Crusade.	
1097	Siege of Nice, and battle of Dorylæum.	
1098	Siege of Antioch, and battle of Orontes.	Adhémar de Monteil, bishop of Puy, A. D. 1098.
1099	Siege of Jerusalem, and battle of Ascalon.	Urban II, Pope, 1099.—St. Bruno, founder of the Carthusian order, 1101.—Raymond, count of Toulouse, 1105.—Robert, earl of Flanders; and Bohemond, prince of Tarentum and Antioch, 1111.—Tancred, warrior, 1112.—Peter the Hermit, 1115.—Robert, duke of Normandy, 1134.
	Kingdom of Jerusalem.	
	Knights Hospitallers of St. John.	
1118	Knights Templars.	
1147	Second Crusade.	
1170	Military order of St. James.	
1187	The Christians defeated by Saladin in the battle of Tiberias.	William of Malmesbury, historian, towards 1150.—Suger, abbot of St. Denis, 1152.—St. Bernard, abbot of Clairvaux, 1153.
	Fall of the Kingdom of Jerusalem.	
1188	Third Crusade.	Nouradin, conqueror, 1174.—Alexander III, Pope, 1181.—William, archbishop of Tyre, historian, about 1191.—Saladin, conqueror, 1193.—Dandolo, doge of Venice, 1205.—Averroes, Arabian philosopher, 1206.
1190	Teutonic Order.	
1196	Fourth Crusade.	
1200	Fifth Crusade.	
1204	Latin empire of Constantinople.	
1212	Prodigious victory of the Christians of Spain over the Moors of Murandal.	Maimonides, Jewish rabbin, 1209. Villehardoin, historian, 1212.

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1214	Battle of Bouvines, in which Philip Augustus conquers all his enemies.	Innocent III, Pope, 1216. Simon of Montford, general, 1218. St. Dominic, founder of the Dominicans, 1221.
1217	Sixth Crusade.	
1220	Battle of the Jaxartes, between Genghis-Kan and Sultan Mohammed.	St. Francis of Assisium, founder of the Franciscans, 1226. Genghis Kan, Mogul conqueror, 1227.
1230	Opposite parties of the Guelfs and Gibelins in Italy. Mariner's compass, invented some time before, began to be used.	
1248	Seventh Crusade.	
1250	Captivity of St. Louis.	Blanche of Castile, queen, 1252.
1258	Bagdad taken by the Moguls; end of the Arabian Caliphate.	Matthew Paris, historian, 1259.
1261	Fall of the Latin Empire of Constantinople.	
1268	Eighth and last Crusade.	
1270	Death of St. Louis.	

PART VI.

1291	Final overthrow of the Christian power in Syria—Invention of Gun-powder about this time,—also, according to many, of the magnifying glass and spectacles.	St. Thomas Aquinas and St. Bonaventure, doctors of the Church, 1274. Charles of Anjou, conqueror of Naples and Sicily, 1285. Roger Bacon, Mathematician, astronomer, etc. 1294.
1300	Rise of the Ottoman Empire.	
1308	Commencement of Swiss independence.	
1310	Conquest of Rhodes by the Knights of St. John.	
1312	Suppression of the Knights templars.	
1313	Battle of Bannockburn, in which the Scots signally defeated the English.	
1315	Battle of Morgarten, which secured the independence of Switzerland.	William Tell, warrior. Joinville, historian, 1318—Dante, poet, 1321—Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, 1329.
1340	Awful and complete overthrow of the Moors at Tarifa.	
1348	Universal and dreadful pestilence.	
1340	Battles of Sluys,	
1346	Crecy, Nevil's Cross,	
1356	Poitiers,	
1367	Navarette, } won by the English.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1372	English fleet destroyed by the Spaniards near La Rochelle.	Petrarch, poet, 1374—Edward, prince of Wales, 1377—Bertrand Du Guesclin, general, 1380.
1396	Signal defeat of the Christians at Nicopolis.	
1397	Treaty of Calmar for the union of Denmark, Sweden and Norway.	
1402	Tremendous battle of Ancyra between Sultan Bajazet I and Tamerlane.	Tamerlane, the tartar conqueror, 1405.
1429	Siege of Orleans.	
1440	Invention of the art of printing.	Margaret, queen of Sweden and Denmark, 1412.
1450–1453	The English defeated at Fourmigny and Chatillon--Lose their possessions in France.	Joan d'Arc, the maid of Orleans, 1431.
1453	Fall of Constantinople.	Hunniades, general, 1456.
1456	Siege of Belgrade—Mahomet repulsed with great loss.	Scanderbeg, king of Albania, 1467. Guttemberg, Faust, Shœffer, first printers.
1461	Destruction of the empire of Trebisond.	Thomas-à-Kempis, 1471. Warwick, general, 1471—Margaret of Anjou, queen of England, 1482.
1480	First siege of Rhodes.	
1492	Extinction of the power of the Moors in Spain.	Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, 1490.

PART VII.

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1492	Discovery of America.	Picus, prince of Mirandola, 1494—Peter d'Aubusson, grand-master of the Order of St. John, 1503—Christopher Columbus, 1506—Gonzalez of Cordova, general, 1512—Bramante, architect, 1506—Albuquerque the Great, conqueror of the East-Indies, 1515—Ximenes, cardinal and statesman, 1517—-Magellan, 1520—-Leo X (Medicis), Pope, 1521--Emanuel the Great, king of Portugal, 1521—Bayard, warrior, 1524—Vasco de Gama, 1525.
1497	Discovery of the Northern American continent.	
1497	Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope.	
1509	League of Cambray.	
1515	Battle of Marignan.	
1517	The Protestant Reformation.	
1517	Egypt subdued by the Turks.	
1519 1521	First circumnavigation of the globe. Conquest of Mexico.	
1522	Second siege of Rhodes.	
1525	Battle of Pavia; Francis I taken prisoner.	
1529	First siege of Vienna by the Turks.	Zuinglius, 1531—-Ariosto, poet, 1533—Wolsey, cardinal, statesman, 1533—-Villiers de l'Isle Adam, grand-master of the Order of St. John, 1534—Cajetan, cardinal, divine, 1534—Fisher,
1530	Malta ceded to the knights of St. John.	
1531 1534	Conquest of Peru.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1534	England separates from the See of Rome.	bishop of Rochester, and Thomas More, chancellor, 1535—Erasmus, divine, 1536—Garcilaso de la Vega, poet, 1536—Guicciardini, historian, 1540.
1534	Foundation of the Order of the Jesuits.	
1545	Opening of the Council of Trent, the last general council.	Francis Pizarro, conqueror, 1541—Copernicus, astronomer, 1543—Luther, 1546—Hernando Cortez, conqueror, 1547—St. Francis Xavier, the apostle of East-Indies and Japan, 1552—St. Ignatius of Loyola, founder of the Society of Jesus, 1556—Pole, cardinal, 1558—Julius Scaliger, physician, philosopher, etc., 1558—Cranmer, 1556—Robert Stephen, printer, 1559—Calvin, 1564.
1556	Abdication of Charles V.	
1557	The French defeated by the Spaniards at St. Quentin.	
1558	The French recover Calais from the English.	
		Michael Angelo, painter and architect, 1564—Vida, poet, 1566—John la Valette, grand-master of St. John, 1568—S. Pius V, Pope, 1572—D. Juan of Austria, general, 1578—Camoens, poet, 1579—Ferdinand Alvarez, duke of Alva, general, 1582—St. Theresa, foundress of the Carmelites, 1582—St. Charles Borromeo, archbishop of Milan, 1584—Gregory XIII, Pope, 1585—F. Louis Granada, divine, 1588—Sixtus V, Pope, 1590.
1565	Siege of Malta.	
1571	Battle of Lepanto.	
1572	Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day.	
1580	Portugal annexed to Spain.	
1581	Republic of Holland proclaimed.	
1582	Reformation of the Calendar.	
		Alexander Farnesius, duke of Parma, general, 1592—Tasso, poet, 1595—Drake, admiral, 1596.
1587	Unjust Execution of Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland.	Tyco-Brahe, astronomer, 1601—Baronius, cardinal, historian, 1607—Joseph Scaliger, historian, poet, etc., 1609—Casaubon, historian, divine, etc., 1614—F. Alfonso Rodriguez, divine, 1616—Shakspeare, dramatic poet, 1616—Cervantes, Spanish writer, about the same time—Suarez, divine, 1617—Duperron, cardinal, controvertist, 1618—Bellarmine, cardinal, controvertist, 1621—St. Francis of Sales, founder of the Visitation, 1622—Mariana, historian, 1624.
1588	Defeat of the Spanish Armada.	
1590	Invention of the telescope by Jansen.	
1610 1620	Invention of the thermometer and the microscope by Drebbel.	
1626	Invention of the Barometer by Torricelli.	
1607 1608	Beginning of the English and French settlements in North America.	
1613	Foundation of New Amsterdam, or New York.	Herrera, historian, 1625—Bacon, philosopher, divine, 1626.
1630	Foundation of Boston.	
1634	Foundation of the colony of Maryland.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.
1648	Treaty of Westphalia.
1649	King Charles I beheaded.—Commonwealth in England.
1658	Battle of Dunes.
1659	Treaty of Pyrenees between France and Spain.
1669	Conquest of Candia by the Turks.
1672	Invasion of Holland by the French.
1674	Battle of Senef.
1674 1675	Brilliant campaigns of Turenne in Alsace and Germany.
1676	Sea-fights near Messina between the French and the Dutch.
1679	Peace of Nimeguen.
1680	Foundation of Charleston.
1682	Foundation of Philadelphia.
1683	Second siege of Vienna; Turks repelled with immense loss.
1685	Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.
1686	League of Augsburg.
1688	Revolution in England.
1690	Battle of Boyne in Ireland.
1690 1692	Naval battles of La Manche and La Hogue; French victorious in the first, defeated in the second.
1692 1693	Splendid victories of Marshal Luxemburg over the allies at Steinkirk and Nerwinde.

REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.

Kepler, astronomer, 1630—Spinola, general, 1630—Tilly, general, 1632—Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden, 1632—Walstein, general, 1634.

Cornelius à Lapide, divine, 1637—Jansenius, 1638—Rubens, painter, 1640—Sully, statesman, 1641—Richelieu, cardinal, statesman, 1642—Galileo, astronomer, 1642—Bentivoglio, historian, 1644—Grotius, civilian, divine, 1645—Gerard Vossius, historian, 1649—Descartes, metaphysician, philosopher, 1650—Montrose, general, 1650—Petavius, divine, historian, etc. 1652--Van-Tromp, admiral, 1653—Usher, historian, 1655—Gassendi, mathematician, philosopher, 1655—Blake, admiral, 1657—Harvey, physician, 1657—St. Vincent of Paul, founder of the Lazarists, and of the sisters of charity, 1660—Mazarin, cardinal, statesman, 1661—Pascal, mathematician, etc. 1662—Bollandus, historian, 1665—Anne of Austria, queen, 1666—Moliere, dramatist, 1673—Milton, poet, 1674—Turenne, general, 1675—Kiuperli, general and statesman, 1676—Ruyter, admiral, 1676—Monk, general, 1679—Montecuculli, general, 1680—Bernini, architect and sculptor, 1680—Colbert, statesman, 1683—Corneille, dramatist, 1684—Prince of Condé, general, 1686—Solis, historian, 1686—Isaac Vossius, historian and philosopher, 1688—Ducange, historian, 1688—Duquesne, admiral, 1688 Lebrun, painter, 1690—Charles, duke of Lorraine, general, 1690 Boyle, philosopher and divine, 1691.

Puffendorf, civilian, 1694--Arnauld, controvertist, 1694.

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
		Tillotson, orator, 1694——Thomassin, divine, 1695—Luxemburg, general, 1695—Lafontaine, poet, 1695—Domat, civilian, 1796 Madame Sevigné, 1696—Sobieski, king of Poland, 1696—Tillemont, historian, 1698——D'Orleans, historian, 1698—Racine, dramatist, 1699.
1697	Peace of Riswick between France, England, Germany and Spain.	
1697	Decisive battle of Zenta in favor of the Austrians against the Turks.	
1699	Peace of Carlowitz, between the Ottoman Porte, Austria, Venice and Poland.	Tourville, admiral, 1701—Dryden, poet, 1701.
1700	Eight thousand Swedes defeat eighty thousand Muscovites near Narva.	Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, 1704—Bourdaloue, orator and divine, 1704—Locke, philosopher, 1704 Bayle, 1706—Marshal Vauban, 1707—Aureng-zeb, Mogul emperor, 1707—Mabillon, historian, divine, etc. 1707—Flechier, bishop of Nismes, 1710—Boileau, poet, 1711—Dominic Cassini, astronomer, 1712—-Malebranche, philosopher, metaphysician, 1715 —Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray, 1715.
1701	War for the succession of Spain.	
1704	The French and their allies, defeated at Hochstadt.	
1706	.......Ramilies and Turin.	
1708	.......Oudenarde.	
1709	.......Malplaquet.	
1707	Victorious at Almanza.	
1710	............Villa-Viciosa.	
1712	............Denain.	
1713	Peace of Utrecht.	
1715	Regency of the Duke of Orleans.	Leibnitz, mathematician, divine, etc. 1716—Charles XII, king of Sweden, 1718—Addison, poet, etc. 1719—Madame de Maintenon, 1719—Marlborough, general, 1722—Kang Hi, Chinese emperor, 1722—Prideaux, historian, 1724—Newton, astronomer, 1727 —Daniel, historian, 1728—Villars, general, 1734——Ferreras, historian, 1735——Prince Eugene of Savoy, general, 1736—Boerhaave, physician, 1738—Polignac, divine and statesman, 1739.
1716 1717	Turks signally defeated at Peterwaradin and Belgrade by prince Eugene of Savoy.	
1718	Treaty of Passarowitz.	
1734	Naples and Sicily gained to the house of Bourbon.	
1736	Voyages of the French mathematicians to the North and to the Equator, for the purpose of ascertaining the true figure of the earth.	
1739	Capture and plunder of Delhi by Thamas Kouli Kan.	Rollin, historian, 1741——J. B. Rousseau, poet, 1741—Montfaucon, historian and divine, 1741—Halley, astronomer, 1742—Massillon, bishop of Clermont, 1743—Pope, poet, 1744—Thamas Kouli Kan, the Persian conqueror, 1747--Bernouilli, mathematician, 1748—Thomson, poet, 1748—Count Saxe, general, 1750—Calmet, divine, 1757——Benedict XIV, pope, 1758—Wolf, Montcalm, generals, 1759.
1740	War for the succession of Austria.	
1745	Battle of Fontenoy.	
1746	The Pretender in England and Scotland.	
1748	Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.	
1752	Identity of lightning and electricity ascertained by Franklin, at Philadelphia. About the same time, invention of the achromatic telescope.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1755	Lisbon laid in ruins by an earthquake.	
1757	The French are defeated at Rosbach.	
1759 1760	The French lose Quebec and all Canada.	
1765	Stamp act, the first cause of the American revolution.	Clairaut, mathematician, 1765.
1775	Battles of Lexington and Bunker-hill.	Goldsmith, historian, poet, etc. 1776 —Hume, 1776——William Pitt, Lord Chatham, statesman, 1778 —Voltaire—J. J. Rousseau, 1778 Linnæus, naturalist, 1778—Warburton, divine, 1779—Cook, the navigator, 1779—Maria Theresa, empress, 1780—Blackstone, civilian, 1780—Alban Butler, biographer, 1782—Euler, mathematician, 1783.
1776	Declaration of independence.	
1777	Surrender of Burgoyne.	
1781	Surrender of Cornwallis.	
1783	Treaty of Paris or Versailles. British troops evacuate New York—General Washington resigns his commission into the hands of Congress.	

PART VIII.

1783	Balloons invented by Montgolfier.	
	During the following years of this and the next century, great progress of the *natural* sciences, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, natural history; invention of rail-roads, steam-boats, etc.	Dr. Johnson, 1784--Greene, general, 1786.
1787	Formation of the Federal Constitution of the United States.	
1789	Federal government carried into operation—Washington unanimously elected president.	Franklin, philosopher and statesman, 1790—Bergier, divine, 1790 —Laudon, general, 1790—Romanzow, general, 1790.
1787 1793	Turkey and Poland humbled and almost prostrated by the arms of the Russians.	
1789 1792	French revolution—-Persecution against the clergy and nobles—Emigration.	
1792	Battles of Jemappes and Valmy; the Austrians and Prussians repelled from the French territory.	Rodney, admiral, 1792—Mozart, musical composer, 1792--Robertson, historian, 1793——Gibbon, 1794—Lavoisier, chemist, 1794.
1793	Death of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette on a scaffold.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1793	The first general coalition against France.	
1794	Battle of Fleurus—Fall of the tyrant Robespierre.	
1795	Total dismemberment of Poland—Holland conquered by the French—The directory—Rise of Napoleon Bonaparte.	
1796 1797	Brilliant campaign of Bonaparte in Italy—Victories of Lodi, Arcola, Rivoli—Capture of Mantua--Treaty of Campo-Formio--Extinction of the Venetian republic.	Wayne, general, 1796—Burke, statesman, 1797.
1798	Ecclesiastical State occupied by the French—Pope Pius VI dragged into captivity and exile. Second coalition against France. Expedition of Bonaparte in Egypt—Battle of the Pyramids and Aboukir.	
1799	Bonaparte, on his return to Paris, becomes the head of government under the title of Consul—Kingdom of Naples subdued by the French, who are soon after driven from Italy, by Suwarrow.	Pius VI, Pope, 1799—Washington, first president of the United States, 1799—Patrick Henry, statesman, 1799—Saussure, naturalist, 1799.
1800	Election of a new Pope--Sitting of the American congress at Washington for the first time—Invention of the Galvanic battery—Battle of Marengo—Exploits of General Moreau in Germany—Malta surrenders to the English.	Suwarrow, general, 1800—Blair, rhetorician, 1800.
1801	French evacuate Egypt—Peace of Luneville between France and Austria.	
1802	Treaty of Amiens between England and France—Reestablishment of the Catholic worship in France, in virtue of a concordate passed the year before.	Feller, biographer, 1802—O'Leary, controvertist, 1802—Gerdil, cardinal, metaphysician, divine, etc. 1802.

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1803	San-Domingo entirely lost to the French—Republic of Hayti.	Pichegru, general, 1804—Priestley, chemist, 1804.
1804	Napoleon crowned emperor.	
1805	Third coalition—French and Spanish fleets destroyed at Trafalgar by Admiral Nelson.	
	Signal victories of the French	
1805	At Austerlitz, over the Austrians.	Nelson, admiral, 1805.
1806	. . . Jena, over the Prussians.	William Pitt, the younger, and Charles J. Fox, orators and statesmen, 1806—Walker, 1807. Lalande, astronomer, 1807.
1807	. . . Friedland, over the Russians.	
1807	Treaty of Tilsit.	
1807 1808	Invasion of Portugal and Spain by the French—Their defeat at Baylen—Siege of Saragossa.	
1809	Fourth coalition--Prodigious efforts of the Austrians rendered unavailable by the courage and activity of Napoleon-—Battle of Wagram terminates the war—Peace of Vienna—Attempt of the French emperor on the Ecclesiastical State—Pope and cardinals persecuted.	Haydn, musical composer, 1809—
1812	America declares war against England--Disastrous campaign of Napoleon in Russia.	
1813	Fifth coalition-—Campaign of Saxony—French victorious at Lutzen, Bautzen and Dresden, are entirely defeated at Leipsig, and lose all their conquests in Germany-—Driven also from Spain by Wellington; battle of Vittoria—A British flotilla on Lake Erie all captured by the Americans.	Koutousoff, general, 1813.—Moreau, general, 1813—Prince Poniatowski, 1813.
1814	New defeat of the English on Lake Champlain—Victorious at Washington, they are foiled in their attempt on Baltimore.	
	Allies enter France—Abdication of Napoleon.	

A. D.	MEMORABLE EVENTS.	REMARKABLE PERSONAGES.
1815	Second American war closed by the signal victory of New Orleans. Return of Napoleon from Elba——Sixth coalition against France—Decisive battle of Waterloo, which prostrates the power of the French emperor—His second fall, and exile to St. Helena.	Ney, prince of Moscova, general, 1815—Murat, king of Naples, 1815—Robert Fulton, the inventor of steam-boats, 1815. John Carroll, first archbishop of Baltimore, 1815.
1816	Independence of Buenos-Ayres.	Sheridan, orator and poet, 1816.
1818	Independence of Chili.	Kosciusko, general, 1817—Blucher, general, 1819—Count Stolberg, historian, controvertist, 1819—Count de Maistre, statesman, controvertist, 1821——Napoleon Bonaparte, the fallen emperor of the French, 1821—Castelreagh, statesman, 1822—Herschell, astronomer, 1822—Pius VII, Pope, 1823.
1820 1824	................Colombia. ....Bolivia. ....Peru. ....Mexico.	
1820	Discovery of Electro-Magnetism.	
1823	Civil war in Spain—Successful exertions of the French in favor of Ferdinand VII.	Milner, controvertist, 1826.
1827	Naval battle of Navarino, which secured the independence of Greece.	Fifty years exactly after the declaration of independence, Thomas Jefferson and John Adams, its chief supporters in Congress, die both on the fourth of July, 1826—Laplace, astronomer, 1827—Davy, chemist, 1829.
1829	Emancipation of the British Catholics.	
1830	Conquest of Algiers by the French——Revolution of July.	Bolivar, general, 1830—Cuvier, naturalist, 1832—Lafayette, general, 1834—Humboldt, geographer, 1835—Marshall, chief Justice, historian, 1835-Bowditch, astronomer, 1838—Talleyrand, statesman, 1838.
1833	New disturbances in Spain after the death of Ferdinand VII.	
1836	Formation of the republic of Texas.	
1840	Intervention of England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, in favor of the Turkish sultan against the encroachments of the pacha of Egypt.	
1840 1842	War between China and G. Britain, terminates to the advantage of the English.	John England, bishop of Charleston, 1842.

TABLE OF AUTHORS AND WORKS

CHIEFLY USED IN THE COMPOSITION OF THIS VOLUME; NOT INCLUDING SEVERAL ALREADY MENTIONED AT THE END OF VOLUME I, V. G. ALBAN-BUTLER, BERAUT-BERCASTEL, FELLER, FLEURI, LEBEAU, D'ORLEANS, ETC.

ALEXANDER (NATALIS): *Historia Ecclesiastica,* 8 vols. folio, Paris, 1699;—the sixth and seventh vols. have been used.

ANQUETIL: *Histoire de France,* 6 vols. 8vo; or 14 vols. 12mo.

Art de Vérifier les dates, folio, Paris, 1770.

BALDASSARI: *Histoire de l'enlèvement et de la Captivité de Pie VI,* translated from the Italian, 1 vol. 8vo.

BANCROFT: *History of the United States,* 3 vols. 8vo. third edition, Boston, 1838.

BOUGEANT (F): *Histoire du traité de Westphalie,* 6 vols. 12mo., Paris, 1744; a master-piece in almost every respect.

CAVEYRAC: *Apologie de Louis XIV et de son Conseil sur la révocation de l'édit de Nantes,* and *Dissertation sur la journée de la St. Barthélemi;* 1 vol. 8vo.

COYER: *Histoire de Jean Sobieski, roi de Pologne,* 3 vols. 12mo., Warsaw, 1761.

DANIEL (F): *Histoire de France,* 3 vols. folio, Paris, 1713.

FROST: *History of the United States,* 1 vol. 12mo., Philadelphia, 1841.

GUYARD DE BERVILLE: *Histoire de Bertrand Duguesclin,* 2 vols. 12mo.

Histoire Universelle (translated from the English), 125 vols. 8vo; the volumes containing the history of the Tartars, the Ottomans, America and France, have been particularly useful.

Histoire de l' Eglise Gallicane, remarkable for soundness of criticism and purity of style; 18 vols. 8vo., Nismes, 1780–81.

History of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, 2 vols. 12mo., Cork, 1815.

Histoire de Venise, 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1839.

Histoire de la Révolution Française, 1 vol. 12mo., Paris, 1838.

HURTER: *Histoire du Pape Innocent III,* translated from the German by Alexandre de St. Chéron, 3 vols. 8vo., Paris, 1838.

IRVING (WASHINGTON): *History of the Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus,* 2 vols. 8vo., New York, 1831.

IRVING (WASHINGTON): *Conquest of Granada,* 2 vols. 12mo., Philadelphia, 1829.

LACROIX: *Géographie,* 2 vols. 12mo.; too old as a geographical work, yet full of historical information.

LA HARPE: *Abrégé de l'histoire des voyages,* continued by Baron de Roujoux; 30 vols. 8vo., Paris, 1830.

LEBRUN: *Adventures et conquêtes de Fernand Cortez,* 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1839.

.... *Conquête du Pérou et Histoire de Pizarre,* 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1840.

LEFRANC: *Histoire Moderne,* 2 vols. 12mo., Lyons, 1840.

.... *Histoire de France,* 2 vols. 12mo., Lyons, 1838.

LINGARD: *History of England,* 14 vols. 8vo., London edition, 1825.

MAIMBOURG: *Histoire des Croisades,* 4 vols. 12mo., Paris, 1680.

MAISTRE (COUNT DE): *Lettres sur l'Inquisition Espagnole,* 1 vol. 8vo., Paris, 1822.

MARLES: *Histoire de Marie Stuart, Reine d'Ecosse,* 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1840.

MARSHALL: *Colonial History,* 1 vol. 8vo., Philadelphia, 1824.

.... *Life of Washington,* 2 vols. 8vo., Philadelphia, 1832.

MARSOLIER: *Histoire du Ministère du Cardinal Ximénès,* 2 vols. 12mo., Paris, 1704.

MICHAUT: *Histoire des Croisades,* fourth edition, 6 vols. 8vo., Paris, 1825.

MIGNOT: *Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman,* 1 vol. 4to. or 4 vols. 12mo., 1771.

NONNOTTE: *Erreurs de Voltaire,* 2 vols. 12mo., Besançon, 1818.

PACCA: *Mémoires du Cardinal Pacca sur la Captivité du Pape Pie VII,* translated from the Italian, 2 vols. 8vo., Paris, 1833.

PEREFIXE: *Histoire de Henri le Grand, roi de France et de Navarre,* 1 vol. 12mo.

PROYART: *Vie du Dauphin* (Duke of Burgundy), *père de Louis XV,* 2 vols. 12mo.

.... *Histoire de Stanislas, roi de Pologne, duc de Lorraine et de Bar,* 1 vol. 12mo.

RAGUENET: *Histoire du Vicomte de Turrenne,* 1 vol. 12mo.

ROBERTSON: *History of America,* 2 vols. 4to., London, 1777.

.... *the reign of the emperor Charles V,* 3 vols. 8vo., second American edition, Philadelphia, 1812.

ROSCOE: *The Life and Pontificate of Leo X,* 4 vols. 8vo., Philadelphia, 1805.

ROY: *Histoire de Jeanne d'Arc,* 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1840.

SADLER: *Lingard's History of England continued,* 1 vol. 12mo., Paris, 1836.

VERTOT: *Histoire des Révolutions de Portugal,* 1 vol. 12mo.

Vertot: *Histoire des Chevaliers de Malte, abrégée en* 1 vol. 12mo., Tours, 1837.

Voltaire: *Histoire de Charles XII*, 1 vol. 12mo.

Walter Scott: *The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*, 2 vols. 8vo., Exeter, 1839.

Wilson: *History of the American Revolution*, 1 vol. 12mo., Baltimore, 1834.

It is almost superfluous to observe, that several of the authors here mentioned, v. g. Roscoe, Walter Scott, Robertson, etc. have been resorted to *as historians*, but not as politicians or philosophers; and have been followed when they relate well-substantiated facts, but not when they bring forward their own private views and religious prejudices.

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